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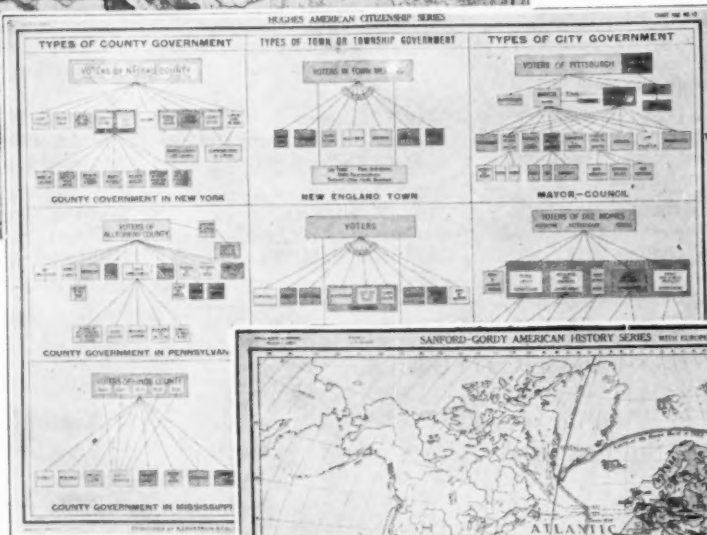
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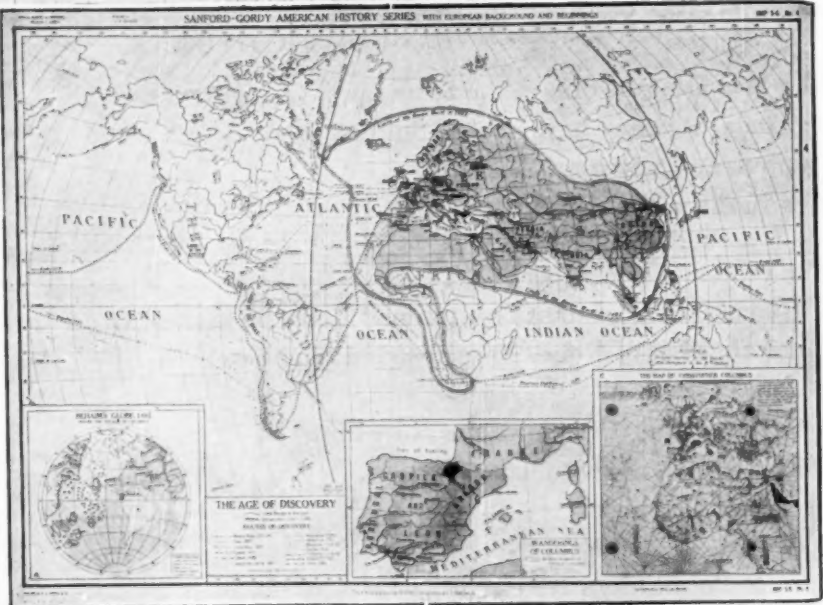


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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

VOLUME XXXI, NUMBER 7

NOVEMBER, 1940

The Primary Function of the School in a Changing Society

KIMBALL WILES

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The most important characteristic of our society is its rapid rate of change. Fifty years ago we were largely an agricultural country; today we are predominantly an urbanized, industrialized civilization. Fifty years ago we lacked the physical facilities to supply our population adequately; today our mechanization has increased a hundred-fold and we could live if we wished in an economy of abundance instead of an economy of scarcity. Fifty years ago, rural communities had little concern with national or international affairs except in election years; today knowledge of the moves of Stalin or Hitler is brought into the most isolated farm homes by radio a few minutes after the action occurs. Fifty years ago only the unusual person traveled; today California is an overnight hop and Europe a matter of hours. This analysis could go on indefinitely: automobiles, organized crime, radio, highways, national debt, and polls of public opinion.

Moreover the change is not complete. We do not have a new world to which to adjust ourselves; we face the task of living in a dynamic world. The process has only begun and there is every indication that the rate of change will increase—not decrease. Television, plastics, and new products will all continue to alter our mode of living.

The metamorphosis of our society has left us confused. Our social patterns have not kept pace. Certain ideals, beliefs, and customs that were good fifty years ago are no longer functional. Theories that had

social utility under the old system do not always meet the needs of the new. For example, the theory of entire independence and complete individualism is ridiculous in a society whose citizens in New York buy cotton from Alabama, winter in Florida, and sell clothes to people in Ohio. When the way of living changes, reorganization of the patterns of thinking must be made or maladjustment occurs. At the present time, a revision of beliefs and patterns has taken place in some groups; others still cling to the old ideas. Confusion and conflict result. In religious, political and economic fields we can see confusion that is the result of adopting new ideas and ways of living in a period of swift change, without fitting them into the background of old patterns or revising the old to harmonize with the new.

This confusion is not only apparent in our society as a whole. It is found in the thinking of the individual. If you imagine this is an exaggeration, let's turn to our own thinking. Do you believe in the sacredness of each individual personality and the necessity of continually improving individual welfare? Do you also believe in "rugged individualism" and the right to acquire property even though our fellows suffer as a result of that acquisition? If so, how do you answer these questions? Does a worker have the right to improve his own welfare by "sitting down" in his employer's factory? Does an employer have the right to close his factory when it means that thousands of families will suffer? Or turning to

other areas, do you believe in supplying everyone with the necessities of life and at the same time feel that high prices must be maintained? Do you know that democracy is lost in time of war, but do you advocate going to war to preserve it? Do you advocate war as a means of bringing back prosperity and know full well that war destroys resources and produces greater poverty? Many people might answer yes to all of these questions. Have you ever considered the plight of the man who is a sincere member of the Catholic church, the American Legion, the Anti-Saloon League, the Democratic party, and the Chamber of Commerce?

This confusion in thinking that has resulted from our condition of constant change is being transmitted to our children. Some time ago I heard a group of bright, outstanding junior high school boys and girls discussing citizenship. I heard one boy say with all the conviction of his boyish heart that we must curb certain minority groups within our society or they will destroy our civil liberties, without once realizing that by advocating the suppression of minorities he was pleading for the overthrow of the thing he was trying to protect—civil liberties. I heard a high school girl extol the virtues of peace and coöperation and yet proclaim with equal fervor that willingness to die on the battlefield to uphold the honor of one's country was the highest form of patriotism. I heard a poorly dressed girl insisting that satisfactory citizenship consisted of supporting one's family and paying taxes, without giving any indication that she realized that her brother in the high school graduating class has one chance in six under present conditions of never being able to support himself, not to mention accumulating sufficient wealth to be considered by the tax collector.

If this was an unusual situation or these children were isolated cases, it would not be a matter of great concern, but this type of thinking can be multiplied by practically the number of school children in the country. Hearing statements such as these raises the question, "What is the function of school in a society beset with the confusion that accompanies rapid social change?"

If our society possessed a definite pattern and a uniform set of beliefs, the task of education would not be difficult. In that case, the function of the educator would be to determine the pattern and the beliefs and then use the schools to acquaint the children with them. Education would simply mean teaching the children the rules of the game. This is not the situation. We live in a society that is dynamic and emerging, a society that has no definite pattern, a society that has only ideals toward which it hopes to develop. Instead of one pattern of living, there are many patterns. There is only one unifying feature: all the group represented by the patterns are

bound together by one common faith. All accept democracy as the way of life. All believe that through it man can achieve the richest existence. But concerning the way to achieve the ideals of democracy, there is disagreement of opinion and conflict of ideas. Each group feels that its solution leads to a fuller life.

In such a society, education is not simple. There are, in the opinion of the writer, but two educational methods of achieving in a dynamic, changing society that which is deemed desirable. One method is for a certain group to select those social patterns that they feel will lead to the type of society desired. After the selection has been made the members of the small group make known their choice to the remainder of society and insist that all abide by their decision. The small group making the decision set aside certain truths as absolute and unquestionable. Although the need for new ideas is recognized, these must be within the framework of the chosen patterns.

This is the method of the dictator, of the absolute monarch, of the oligarchy. It is autocratic; it is based on force; its effectiveness is determined by the ability of the dominating group to force their ideas upon the remainder of the society. It is not democratic because in a democracy we believe that all should have a part in determining the social patterns and beliefs. The basic assumption in a democracy is that the common man is sufficiently intelligent or capable of becoming sufficiently intelligent to make decisions that promote his own well being. Moreover, the citizens of a democracy believe that the patterns of living should change at the will of the group to meet new conditions. Our Constitution illustrates this principle and the Bill of Rights was devised to maintain the channels of change. There are no chosen patterns.

The point of departure by the second method is entirely different. The educator has no absolute patterns of living or thought to instill. Instead, he postulates with society that no beliefs or social patterns should be sacred or immutable to change; that man should be allowed to choose any course of action that seems most likely to further the common good; that the good is a changing quality, subject to redefinition in light of added experience and new conditions. Seen from this viewpoint, education cannot be a learning of the correct way of life; it is finding the way of life. Schooling consists of learning to find the way so well in the simplified environment of the school that the individual will be able to discover the good when deciding the problems of social welfare. The remainder of this paper will attempt to outline the way the schools should attempt to accomplish this result.¹

¹ Although the term social studies is not used throughout the paper, the task outlined for the school will fall primarily on the shoulders of the social studies department. The problems

If the well being of society depends upon the ability of all its members to make intelligent decisions, the primary function of the school is to develop the ability to choose intelligently. How far we are from that ideal today! Some time ago I visited a classroom. The teacher showed me her unit plan which listed the objective "to develop the ability to make intelligent decisions." I listened to the teaching for fifteen minutes and heard only leading questions with rote answers. Finally, I asked for permission to raise a question with the class. It was given and I phrased my query in such a way that a categorical answer would not suffice. Instantly, before the class had an opportunity to respond, the teacher proceeded to launch a tirade against one viewpoint toward this controversial issue. Obviously that teacher was not promoting the ability to make intelligent decisions. For the school to carry out this function requires that the pupil be given a chance to attack problems, to acquire scientific methods of attack and act upon his solution. It casts out that type of presentation which supplies pupils with the correct answers. It demands, instead, that the teacher concern himself with aiding the pupil to deal with his problems in the most intelligent way *for him*. If from the first grade or before, the child is allowed to depend upon the use of his intelligence, he will become an individual able to adequately make decisions; he will have learned the method of solving problems; he will have developed the ability necessary for successful living in a changing democracy.

The first step in accomplishing this function is to give the pupil a sense of direction. Intelligence cannot function in a vacuum. There can be no intelligent decisions unless there are unintelligent decisions. There must be a criterion that evaluates the quality of the choice. That criterion is the ultimate aim of the individual and, if the decision is social, the social goal also. In short, to decide intelligently, there must be in our country knowledge of the meaning of democracy. Thus, if our criterion of intelligent choice and action is the extent to which it furthers the democratic ideals, *the first task of the schools is to make clear the meaning or at least the purpose of democracy to each pupil*. If one thinks that our schools are making clear the purposes of democracy to its pupils, I beg to disillusion him. In my classes with college juniors, we spend a week examining and seeking to understand the concept of democracy. When we start the discussions, the understanding of democracy for the majority of students after high school and two years of college consists of the ability to recite general phrases such as the "rule of the majority," freedom of speech, press, and religion,

involved in the activity indicated are social problems and social studies teachers must carry the major portion of the load in this area.

etc. All except a few tell me that never in their school career have they ever examined the meaning of the term to which they give verbal allegiance.

When students have gained an understanding of the purposes of our society, the program for developing social intelligence is evident. In the second step the school must allow the pupil to examine present social patterns to see whether or not they promote the social ideals. He must be given a chance to exercise his judgment.

In this examination, the pupil will find that many patterns are accepted by the entire social group. These are the social heritage that makes possible social advancement; they are the foundation upon which the social structure is built; they should be accepted by the child. However, even though these patterns are universally accepted, the child should understand that they do not have an absolute value—that they are the social patterns because they justify themselves through their utility, and that at any time they fail to be useful to mankind, they may be replaced by new patterns.

In his examination of social patterns, the individual is sure to find conflicts of the kind described earlier. In case he does not, the school should direct the attention of the pupil to the conflicts that exist in our social organization. Failure to do this may lead the child to assume that he is living in a society in which all problems are decided, absolving him from all necessity for expending effort and, incidentally, taking away the opportunity for the individual to serve his social group which should be one basis upon which the school appeals to the interest of the pupil. Many times we take all the appeal out of the study of economics, politics, ethics, etc., by acting as if we have all the answers.

Probably the best way to direct the attention of the pupil to the conflicts in society is to have him realize the conflict within himself. He should be allowed to see that he is a house divided against itself, that his religious tenets do not always agree with the scientific attitudes to which he subscribes; that his theories concerning government and private property, if examined from different angles, are often in direct contrast to each other. Any natural child would wonder at this internal disorder of his thoughts. He would begin to question and that is what the school wants. "The impetus in learning must come from the 'inside' and not from the 'outside'; that is, it must spring from a felt need for a new adjustment."

To satisfy the child's felt need, the school should start the child examining the sources of knowledge. In this process the school must not restrict any area of society or the social heritage. To do so would be assigning that portion an absolute value which is contrary to democratic philosophy. The school must make all sources of culture available to everyone.

A critical scrutiny of the social heritage will but reflect the conflict in the mentality of the student. What he does about it will depend upon the school. In the past when the school has given the child the answers and he has compartmentalized his conflicts, which is another way of saying that he failed to integrate his social ideals, thus leaving the conflicts undisturbed. This may be all right for the individual, even though it interferes with his full development, if he is satisfied, but it is harmful to society because it prevents growth which results from adjusting these conflicts.

A school carrying out this function that I believe is primary in a changing society will not allow the child to compartmentalize. As a final step, it will insist that he seek a *personal* solution to the conflict in his thinking.

Notice I say *personal*! I would like to make clear that the school need not be concerned if the child's solutions of social conflicts do not agree with the teachers or our own. He may be right, but if he is not, there still is no cause for worry if that child has learned to use his intelligence. If he has developed the habit of applying the scientific approach to social problems he will continually be reconstructing his decisions in light of added experience and new conditions.

There are certain steps that the pupil must follow if he is to develop the habit of making the scientific approach and since we are developing the ability to make intelligent decisions, the teacher should insist upon this procedure. First, the problem must be clearly defined. Second, the pupil must examine all the knowledge that applies to the issue in question. Third, he must, in the light of his data, form a conclusion as to which course of action will further the democratic ideal that he has accepted. Fourth, he must put his decisions into action. Fifth, he must take failure in stride and establish a new hypothesis and continue doing so until he finds an answer that is satisfactory.

The meaning of a satisfactory answer should be explained. The school should make clear to the pupil that he will never reach or should never reach a final

answer; that society and the individual must continually organize and reconstruct their experiences in light of additional experience and added knowledge; that any solutions reached are valuable only as long as they facilitate our development toward the common interests of democracy. When they no longer function, they must be reconstructed or discarded.

If the school focuses the attention of the pupil on the conflicts of our society and insists upon individual rethinking of all material that bears upon any issue, it will provide opportunity for growth, both individual and social. The individual, by deciding the questions by use of his democratic "frame of reference" will progress toward an integration of his mental patterns and develop his ability to use his intelligence. Growth will occur in society because the schools have given the new members of our society a sense of direction and the ability to move toward the goals of democracy. Such a growth must occur. America is in hopeless confusion now. Only by centering the attention of new citizens upon this confusion during the educative process will we provide for the emergence of a more satisfactory order. Otherwise, the future generation will compartmentalize their conflicts as has the present one.

To summarize, the primary function of democratic schools in a changing society is to develop the ability to make intelligent decisions. This must be done by: first, instilling in pupils an adequate conception of democratic ideals; second, by directing the attention of the pupils to the conflicts in present democratic society; third, by having the pupils examine all the knowledge that bears upon these conflicts; fourth, by assisting pupils to make decisions as to the solutions that will promote democratic ideals; fifth, by emphasizing that patterns of good behavior are good only as long as they function. If during the entire educative process, the schools should insist that the child rely upon his intelligence in solving personal and social problems, I think there will be little cause to worry about the ability of our citizens and our democracy to adjust to change necessitated by technical advancement.

Collateral Reading in the Social Studies

ALLETHA STANDISH
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An instructor in methods in one of the leading schools of our country once said that no perfect system had been devised for the guidance of collateral reading. I quite agree, yet I dare offer a few suggestions which for years have proved effective with a

large part of my pupils. I am still hunting the formula which will inspire all of them.

The problem of supplementary reading in any subject is particularly difficult in our schools because, in addition to the number of poor readers which ap-

parently is found in all public secondary schools, we have a high percentage of children of foreign parentage, even a few pupils who can remember their own entry into America. Many homes have few books and papers, or only newspapers printed in a foreign tongue. Close segregation on the basis of intelligence tests is impossible; in one class I.Q.'s may range from 80 to 120.

These conditions render the ordinary textbook bibliography inadequate, so the reference list for each unit of work in history or in social problems is posted on the bulletin board, sent to the library or, in mimeographed form, is given to each student. After the reading for the first unit has been done in class, the reference sheet should classify the materials according to difficulty. I prefer to begin the use of supplementary materials in supervised class periods so that poor students are not discouraged by attempting material that is too difficult for them and that better students do not waste time on books too simple for their ability.

For the first assignment in outside reading, the librarian sends to my classroom the books I have selected to use with the assigned unit of work. Of course, a number of books and magazines are kept permanently in the classroom. Altogether there should be about ten or twelve more choices of material than there are students to choose. Before the arrival of a class, I arrange four groups of books. In the first one are a few very simple texts, much easier than our basic text; in the next group are placed other texts, similar to our own and about as difficult, but presenting a different point of view or a different organization of the subject matter. In the third collection are reference books containing detailed accounts of certain phases of the main problem. In the last group are a few college texts and standard references too difficult for easy reading by the average student.

At the beginning of the reading period, I briefly describe the four types of books and explain that, until the student can better evaluate his own ability, the books are to be assigned according to the grades made on the last objective type test. It cannot be stressed too much that this method is to be used only until the individual achievements indicate a better procedure. A grade of *D* or *E* plainly calls for remedial treatment which is to be found in the easier textbooks. During the first directed reading period, I watch these readers most closely and make an effort, often an unsuccessful one, to determine whether the low grade resulted from slow reading, inability to concentrate, or simply from lack of effort. If possible, I discuss the question with each student and make my own estimate of his ability to grasp facts from the printed page.

Frequently the student who makes a *C* grade is the

one who attempts to repeat exactly "what the book says" without any organization or criticism of the facts, depending on memory alone. As an antidote for this procedure which passes by the name of "study" I prescribe the textbooks from the second grouping. The authors of these have presented a point of view different from that of our author, or have selected different topics to build up the main discussion. Instead of memorizing, the reader is directed to contrast, compare, and evaluate. Does this agree with your previous knowledge? If not, which writer is more convincing? How does he prove his point? Which entertains you more? Which instructs you more? Does this author omit points that the author of the adopted text discussed? Does he give additional food for thought? What is the date of publication of each book? Would a difference in the time or place of writing account for the difference in the conclusions?

An *A* or *B* grade on a first test may indicate superior ability in reading, an unusual interest in the new topic or subject, or simply a grim determination to be on the honor roll. A few of these shining lights need nothing more than a little tactful guidance in the selection of materials and some instruction in the technique of research. Most of them, however, could profit by some direction in efficient methods of study. Such guidance is best given after the need for it appears, certainly not on the first day of supplementary reading.

Note taking on the first day is limited to a notation of the exact title of the book, the name of the author, the date of copyright and the number of pages read. The reading rate should be compared with the reading rate based on the adopted text. In my notebook I record the number of pages read by each student from a specified, uniform assignment. An ambitious person can speed up his reading rate without any loss in the capacity to assimilate, if he really tries. An average time division for the first day would be: ten minutes to explain the four classes of books and the location of those chosen for the *A*, *B*, *C*, and *D* sections of the class (it is best to avoid seating the classes in separate sections, at least on the basis of the first tests); ten minutes for the choice of books from each category—by utilizing the window sills, the teacher's desk, and possibly a table, a class of thirty-five should complete their selection in ten minutes for not more than ten would be in any one group; thirty minutes for reading with possible interruptions for the use of the dictionary or quiet conversation with the teacher; two minutes to check on the notation of author, date, etc., mentioned above, and three minutes to replace the book on the table, window sill, or desk from which it was originally taken.

The second day's work begins with the teacher

explaining the requirements for note taking and the writing of reports. It pays in the end to begin with a careful explanation of the reasons for the seemingly arbitrary demand for reports in outline form. In the first place, the outline is much easier to check than a composition would be; that alone makes possible a fairer sampling of the individual's accomplishment and a fairer evaluation. However, easier checking alone would not justify the demand for an outline as much as the fact that the outline shows, clearly and unmistakably, the ability to select important items from lesser ones, and the ability to see relationships between the important points. Lastly, the outline provides the reader with a concise summary, used both for his own review and for presentation to the class. After making a case for the outline, we proceed to a discussion of its form. Some of our English teachers will accept nothing but a sentence outline, others prefer a topical one. I accept either, provided the writer is consistent in his work. He cannot mix the types in the same outline. The bankers' association some years ago presented high schools with a series of talks on banking with the outlines from which they were prepared. Passing out these outlines and talks for class inspection, I emphasize the fact that the best outline is the one that best helps the writer to organize his materials. Since the bankers' association used either type, sentence or topic, the pupils should be familiar with each. One characteristic, brevity, distinguishes all good organization and I suggest that one page of outlined notes, or even less, is ample to cover one hour's ordinary reading. This seems easy, but later, many poor thinkers would prefer to copy a few pages of quotations. I insist that copied passages are often prepared mechanically with little benefit to the educative process. The discussion of outlines should not take more than fifteen minutes. In the rest of the period, every one should be able to complete a brief outline of the previous day's reading.

On the third day, oral reports by superior pupils are given. A good talker should be chosen and his report should be based on one of the best references. If board space is available, the outline should be on the board when the class enters; if not, it could be quickly written in the class period, since it has been emphasized that good outlines are brief. This is the crucial day in determining the average student's attitude toward extra reports. If he has been a little discouraged or bored with the particular book of his choice, he may see that other choices are available. If he has not been able to condense his voluminous notes to an acceptable amount, he may ask questions of the pupil who did and may see for himself that his judgment, rather than the author's presentation was at fault. It is rarely advisable to have oral reports on the college texts for the first units of a

course. Simply say to the reader of such a work: "This is too hard for the majority of the group and I am afraid it would not be understood. However, you can write up material just as difficult as you are able to handle, and I will grade it very carefully." Possibly it is better at first, especially in history, to let the best students read a larger amount than the average, rather than to start difficult references before the class has really established an interest in the plans for the semester.

As succeeding units are studied, the class time spent in reading grows less, but more time is given for class discussion of assignments read by one, or at the most, several class members. Regardless of the time given for class discussion of supplementary reading, written reports are continued. These reports are prepared on paper with a mimeographed form for the heading. There are spaces for the title of the book or magazine, the title of the article or chapters read, the date of publication, the numbers of the pages read, the time spent in reading, and the time spent in writing the outline. The point system of grading seems most suitable in evaluating this work, since there are three factors to be considered: namely, the time spent, the quality of work, and the difficulty of the material. An hour's work on average material would be worth five points for an *A* report, four for a *B* report, etc. Very difficult material should be rated higher. A very poor reader might choose simple material and make a much longer study of it, if he wishes to raise his standing. For this reason, I always like to see some books of junior high school difficulty in a senior high school library. Some of the really childish collections of biographies are good starters for the child who thinks he does not like to read, whether foreign or native born.

For convenience in preparing the first report, the books are brought to the classroom, but every child should be able to locate his own books in the library. If the library period, or the English period, or even the homeroom guidance period has not given adequate instruction in the Dewey Decimal System and its adaptation to the school and the town libraries, such instruction must be given, or at least reviewed in the social science period. It is surprising how much of the average high school population has been immune to explanations of the use of the *Readers' Guide*.

On my desk are two files that supplement the catalogues and guides in the library. In one file are cards listing the titles, authors, and sources of current magazine articles, and usually a brief comment as to the length, difficulty, or viewpoint of the author. These are filed under cards bearing the names of the units of the course. If a worthy preview of the course has been given, a good student will often bring in an article on "Immigration" or "Crime" months before

the class reaches that particular lesson, or a history student will find a biography which should be listed for further use. Since these cards are filed by units, and are prepared as soon as any one in the course, or the teacher, has noted the article, it is available before the same title is published in the *Readers' Guide* and is more quickly located under the unit filing. This in no way diminishes the effectiveness of the *Readers' Guide*, because no claim is made for the completeness of the file. It is simply a compilation of articles already read by some one interested; a real research would necessitate use of the *Guide*.

The second file was prepared by the combined efforts of the school librarian, a student assistant, and the teacher. This file contains nothing but cards bearing names covered by biographical material in our library. The catchy, attractive titles of some chapters in the simpler collections of biographies give no inkling of the person or period described. I recall just now a sketch entitled "The Blithe Heart of Aquitaine" in Miss Cather's account of famous girlhoods. This is filed as "Eleanor, Mother of Richard the Lion-Hearted" with the name of the book, its author, and the number of the chapter. Even when the chapter headings are more explicit, much time can be saved by using the file on biographies where the cards on the same person are all filed together. This obviates a search of the indexes of several collections of biographies.

It is better to allow a pupil to use poor material of his own choice than to run the risk of discouraging him from any reading. Use his choice as a beginning and suggest other sources on the same topic. Even the lurid Sunday supplement may arouse a curiosity that can be directed toward verification of challenging statements. A murder story may have a background rich in historical information. Remember, the parent who chose that particular Sunday paper is respected by his child just as much as the teacher who can't see anything but the *New York Times*. Do not ridicule any inaccuracy; use it as a challenge, and give every aid in finding material that is both interesting and accurate. The boy or the girl who thinks he or she does not like to read needs special attention. Too often this attitude is simple discouragement following naturally from the attempt to read material too difficult for him or her, though simple enough for the average person of that particular grade. The *American Magazine* for July 1933 had an article with this lengthy title: "Go To It, Kid! Show 'Em What You Can Do." This easy but educational treatment of the CCC camps I gave to a boy whose home had no reading matter except a foreign newspaper. He thought he did not like to read, but his pleasure with this report was as naïve as it was pathetic. He said, "I never knew I could like anything I read for school work." Incidentally, he read a little more about the

CCC camps when I pointed out several better articles with more dignified titles.

No study of current periodicals can be complete without at least an introduction to the question of critical reading or, to use a more popular term, propaganda analysis. I found the complete plan in "Propaganda—How to Recognize and Deal With It."¹ It demanded more time than could be devoted in the one year allotted to Social Problems, but I found the pupils very receptive to the few lessons I gave to the subject. I began by stressing the idea that propaganda was not necessarily evil. "Propaganda is opinion expressed for the purpose of influencing actions of individuals and groups." A very short time sufficed to list on the blackboard the various appeals of the propagandist: the desire to be popular, to wish to excel, the fear of pain, etc., as listed in the *Guide*. Students apparently enjoyed the examination of the Planter's Peanut advertisements which illustrate so many of these appeals. The tools of the propagandist have been aptly named by the same publication and are graphically illustrated in *The Fine Art of Propaganda*, published by Harcourt, Brace and Company for the Institute of Propaganda Analysis.

Following the examination of advertising material, another type of undisguised propaganda was studied, again stressing that our use of the word covered any attempt, justified or not, to influence the thinking of others. This type covers appeals for money, such as the pamphlets from the Community Chest and other religious and charitable organizations, as well as the numerous folders, etc., picked up in any political campaign. Here, too, are included "Probation" with its plea for better treatment of criminals and "The American Child" which calls attention to pitiful cases of child exploitation. Here the propagandist makes no secret of his intention to influence the reader in his thinking, and the pupil is apt to think the appeal was a justifiable one. This is a good time to discuss the four tests of propaganda found in *Our Times* in the issue of December 6, 1937. These four questions form one of the few arbitrary assignments for notebooks, and I do insist that each book contain these tests:

Is some one trying to influence you?
Who is back of it?
What will he get out of it?
Is it true?

Each student has one piece of propaganda to analyze, answering these questions and looking for the propaganda devices. The *Scholastic* last year gave frequent helps in the criticism of controversial ma-

¹ *Propaganda—How To Recognize It and Deal With It*, Institute of Propaganda Analysis, 132 Morningside Drive, New York.

terials. This much of the work has taken only two class periods. At this point I tell the students that they are at liberty to bring me an analysis of propaganda of their own finding. When I have made this a required assignment, I felt that, while many scholars simply grabbed anything convenient, the selections of a few always proved stimulating and worth preserving for future classes. Even if a few high school seniors can detect influences that are not so apparent as those in the examples studied in the class period, the two days' time has been well spent. Further references to propaganda can be made incidentally, and certainly no social science class in 1940 could avoid propaganda materials if it tried. We cannot escape propaganda so we must *try*, at least, to see *what is justified* and *what is true*. "Not failure, but low aim, is crime" was never truer.

By encouraging the contribution of periodicals and clippings from the home, several objectives are accomplished. First, the teacher gets an insight into home conditions; second, there is the opportunity to secure really valuable material. Many of the foreign papers have an English section. From a Slavish paper came a serial biography of Pupin, one of Kosuth from the Hungarian paper, while a Slovak girl donated an account, in Slovak, however, of the reaction of the Slovaks in America to the Munich settlement.

It should always be understood and stressed, that books and leaflets not on the assigned lists or secured from private libraries be approved *before* the report is made. This gives the teacher an opportunity to suggest better material and to explain why any particular choice of the student is a poor choice. Then, too, this lessens the chance for dishonesty in preparing reports. In giving recognition for extra credit reading, we also arouse a desire for the recognition. If the teacher has approved an eight-page pamphlet, there is little temptation to call it a book of 150 pages when writing a brief condensation.

Personally, I do not believe a pupil deserves a grade above C unless he does some supplementary reading, either in history or in social problems. If the

teacher does not have more than 150 pupils a day, it is possible to set a standard of say fifteen points for a B each six weeks' report period, and twenty-five or more for an A. College preparatory students should have a higher standard than the commercials. If the classes are so large that careful grading of so many reports is impossible, only aspirants for an A could be required to do reading. It is just as satisfactory to have some classes make reports for credit some months and the other groups report on alternate months. Voluntary reports are always read. If a pupil is interested enough to read the material, it is the teacher's duty to find time to read the report, or better yet, hear a discussion of it. Panel discussions are efficient in using some types of report material, but the student may have read more widely than the panel gives him opportunity to show. It should encourage more reading among the less ambitious. Junior high school children like to see a class roll posted in the room, showing the number of points earned in supplementary reading by each one. The first fifteen points, or the B standard, may be marked in blue pencil, the ones counting for an A in red. It is important to stress that tests and class work must keep to an A or B standard as well. Frequently, I have a student ask if he cannot read something extra to make up for a low test or a failure. I ask, before replying, what accounts for the low grade. Usually the scholar is fair enough to see that supplementary reading is just what it says—a supplement, not a substitute for the minimum assignment. He is always welcome to one of the easy texts mentioned before, but that is an aid in mastering fundamentals that must be understood before the reading for an A or B grade is to be started.

Strive constantly to develop an honest self-evaluation of progress. There are always a few in each year's class who notice their own growing ability to understand subject matter of increasing difficulty. It is a matter of justifiable pride to make an acceptable report from sources usually considered of college grade. Perhaps the pupil's pride may equal that of his teacher's, but I doubt it.

Pictures Teach History

CLARENCE STEGMEIR

Thornton Township High School, Harvey, Illinois

Three years ago the crowded conditions at Thornton Township High School located at Harvey, Illinois, made it advisable to turn a shop room temporarily into a history classroom. The walls of this shop room were made of rough tile. It would have been foolish to plaster the room for the few

years that it was to be used for history. Through the use of cork board, blackboard, and a frieze of history pictures the shop room was turned into an attractive history classroom. When the new addition was built these pictures were transferred to one of the new rooms. The pictures have more than paid

for themselves in the three years that we have used them. Their greatest value has been of an educational nature. The pictures have been used to teach a vivid and practical history that will be remembered long after the textbook material is forgotten. In order that other teachers may profit from our experience the method of using these pictures is briefly explained.

CONSTRUCTING THE FRIEZE

The pictures used in the frieze are two feet wide. They start in one corner and continue around the room in an unbroken frieze except where the transom makes a break necessary. Each picture is mounted on quarter inch plywood and is joined to the next picture with a neat metal blackboard joint. The pictures are lacquered to keep them from getting dirty. The outside frame is nailed to wooden plugs and is the same style of oak as the woodwork of the room.

The pictures used are colored copies of famous originals and are very accurate in details. They were purchased through A. J. Nystrom and Company 3333 Elston Avenue, Chicago, Illinois, who mounted, altered, and lacquered the pictures to our order. It was a difficult task to select appropriate pictures because two conflicting ideas had to be kept in mind. First each picture had to be a key picture for a definite understanding that we are trying to teach in our survey course in history. In the second place, each picture had to fit into the harmony of the frieze.

ROOM ATMOSPHERE

The ancient Greek produced a beautiful culture. Before beauty can come out of the soul of any human it must first enter it. Unconsciously as we live, our physical surroundings affect our life. The walls and floor of the average classroom are built at great expense. The best of materials are used. Then we stop. How would our homes look if we make no additions after the contractor left? The beauty of a home is completed by the interior decorator or a skilful wife through a simple touch of curtains, drapes, pictures, etc. One does not realize how bare the average classroom is until he teaches in a room in which atmosphere is considered. The atmosphere of the room not only affects the teacher but unconsciously changes the attitude of the pupils. As a student glances up from his work, to rest his eyes, he unconsciously sees, at Thornton, a picture. The association is still history. This unconscious association with the pictures in the room means a great deal to these students. The first topic of conversation I have with former students is usually in some form or other connected with these pictures. Many come back at intervals to see them again. As I look at them day after day some new detail seems to be constantly coming into my consciousness. I believe that one can-

not help but be influenced by this sort of physical environment.

TEACHING PROCEDURE

The great difficulty in using pictures is to have them accessible to the class. Our modern textbooks have been greatly improved through the addition of pictures. Much of the beauty is missing in these pictures because they lack color and are often too small to show detail. In selecting the pictures for the frieze the dual purpose of educational and artistic value was kept in mind. Insofar as possible the organization of the course rather than time order was kept in mind. Wherever it was possible chronological order was used.

The first picture represents the world before the coming of man. In the foreground a prehistoric animal walks slowly toward the water. The next three pictures trace the progress of man by using first, an early cave scene, second, a picture which represents a group of Paleolithic troglodytes (a Lehmann picture) who are living in a grass thatched hut and have started to till the soil, and third, a typical Swiss Lake village that has the beauty of an Alpine Lake for a background.

The next group of pictures briefly tells the story of River Valley civilization. Egypt and Phoenicia are used as typical examples of these civilizations. The first picture of the pyramids and desert logically center one's attention on Egypt. The next picture shows an Egyptian temple with a religious procession in the foreground. In the background the Nile and its banks are vividly portrayed. The story of Egypt is completed with an Egyptian funeral scene. The pictures on River Valley civilization are completed with a Phoenician boat which symbolizes the importance of the Phoenician in spreading River Valley civilization.

Portraits of Greek women and men not only introduce the Greeks but give valuable ideas of character and dress. When the Persians threatened Greek culture the Greek fleet built by Athens met the Persians in the Battle of Salamis. The picture of the Battle of Salamis is full of action. Greek life produced Greek culture. The picture selected to portray Greek life is an outdoor college scene. The various athletic contests are in progress. The Greek culture is illustrated with three pictures. An excellent interior picture of a group of Greek philosophers makes one almost hear the words of Socrates so realistic is the picture. The beauty of the Greek theater and the Acropolis are restored for us in the next two pictures. The statue of Athena and the Parthenon dominate the Acropolis and the story of a great Greek civilization.

In the next group of pictures the Romans conquer the Mediterranean world and take over the culture of

Greece. A picture of a group of Roman soldiers is a good introductory picture. A street scene in Rome shows the common fountain, the little shops and the Roman homes. The ability of the Romans in government is visualized by an excellent picture of the Roman Senate being addressed by an able Roman senator. The Roman forum, restored, shows Rome at the height of the Empire. Take one of these buildings, place it in Grant Park, Chicago, and it would harmonize very well with the buildings already there. The story of Rome is not complete without the story of Christianity. In the next picture a group of Christians are huddled together in the Circus Maximus waiting for the gate to open which will release the hungry lions. The Roman populace watches the scene with great anticipation. Rome falls! The last picture shows a fair haired vandal chieftain collecting the plunder from the dark haired Romans. A true story of contrasting races!

The story of the Middle Ages is easily told in pictures. The picture illustrating the home life of the barbaric Teutons in Germany, before their migration, is a wonderful contrast to the Greek Acropolis and Roman Forum. The monastery life is an important phase of medieval life. The monks at work in a monastery is perfectly illustrated in the Lehmann colored picture called "In the Cloister Yard." The boys and girls like the next two pictures. One shows a colorful medieval tournament and the other an attack on a medieval town. These pictures teach a story all of their own. The medieval manor and the life of the peasant is shown in a composite picture which traces the manor work from sowing the seed to grinding the flour in the lord's wind mill. Feudalism is illustrated by a group of German vassals pay-

ing allegiance to their lord.

The Renaissance changes the story of man. Life quickens and civilization awakens again. To illustrate political awakening three pictures are used. One picture shows a peasant family in front of their crude home. In the background on a hill is the noble's castle. The noble's man, on horse back, is taking away the peasant's cow. The peasant's wife "wrings" her hands in despair. She is thinking of the hardship of doing without milk and cheese, during the long winter. She sees the savings of a life time lost and her children's food taken away because they could not meet the increasing feudal dues. The next picture represents the magnificence of the nobility in the Rococo period. Fair ladies and powdered dandies are dancing while the peasants starve. These two pictures help lay the foundation for the French Revolution and illustrate the value of political freedom that a true democracy can give to a people. The English struggle for freedom is illustrated with the famous picture of King John signing the Magna Carta. The revival of intellectual thought was hastened by the printing press. The Meinhold picture of Johann Gutenberg and his press is a masterpiece. Gothic architecture speaks for itself in the magnificent picture of the Cologne Cathedral. Out of the old alchemist shop comes a modern science. The Lehmann picture of "An Alchemist" is very complete in its details. A fitting close to the period of Renaissance is the picture of the first steam engine, the foundation of our modern industrial revolution.

The wall space is all used. A living story of history is on the classroom wall. Life with it for a year while studying history cannot help but influence the life of boys and girls.

The International Forum

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BOLIVIA AND THE UNITED STATES

TEDDY HARTMANN

Consul General of Bolivia in New York

Geographically, North and South America form a unit; they are separated by the Panama Canal—the work of man and not of nature. Theoretically the two continents should have much in common, and yet there are two barriers that separate them: language and religion. Nevertheless, forces are at work which

tend to unite us and we do not know how to make use of them. Religion no longer has the influence which it formerly had, and its power is now confined to the control of the conscience of the individual. Language can be learned and constitutes a means of better understanding; some customs can be adopted



PLAZA ROMA, LA PAZ

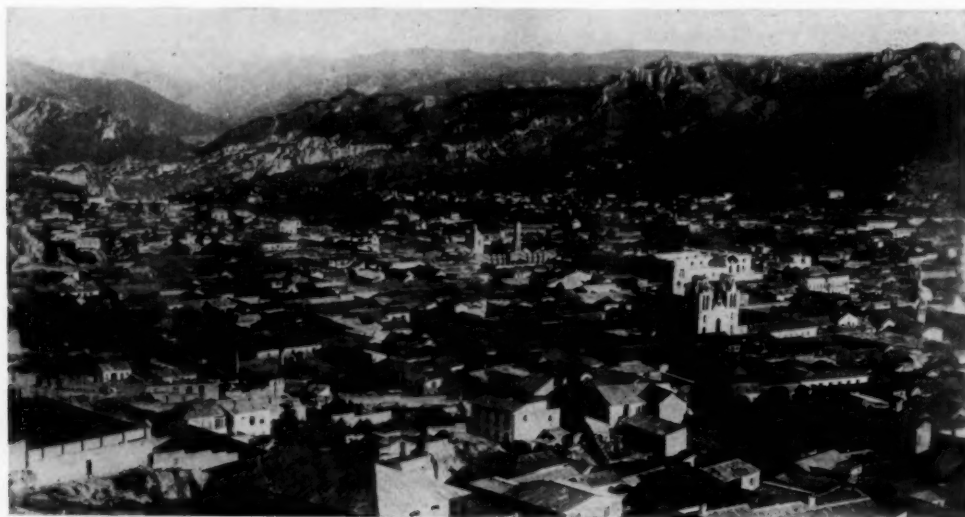
as it is a virtue to copy what is good. The forces which are bringing us together are, therefore, those of common interest, mutual convenience, advantage, foresight and defense.

The Americas do not know each other. We of the South know those of the North from the reports of certain travels in which the narrator tells his story according to his own experience, pleasant or otherwise, and tinged by his own prejudices. We also know the North Americans from the moving picture films that show the cowboys—skillful with the lasso and fists, the gunmen, the unconventional women, and the unscrupulous merchants. We South Americans are judged by photographs showing naked savages, impenetrable forests, wild beasts, wretched villages, individuals in ragged clothing with famished faces, revolutionaries in picturesque military uniforms and with frightful expressions. Therefore, we have a very wrong idea of each other. The Americas are in reality very different from what is depicted in such films and photographs; they are very much better. The eagerness for profit, the desire to talk of exotic things, consecrates the error, the grave error which far from bringing us together, tends to separate us and presents us as being small and odious. If this work is not stopped, the damage will be very serious, the spiritual separation will become far deeper.

The task of making the Americas better acquainted with each other is in the hands of the intellectuals and business men; by intellectuals are to be understood the writers, newspaper men, professors, artists. It is unpleasant for us South Americans when per-

sons of prominence in North American trade, banking, newspaper or educational circles ask us questions about our country which reveal their own lack of knowledge. This defect is due to neglect of the things which are not readily obtainable. On the other hand, the cultured South American is distinguished by a more or less good knowledge of things North American. The explanation for this has been supplied in part by Mr. Jaime Gutierrez Guerra, Bolivian Consul in New York, who states that for the North Americans to become acquainted merely with their own country and its forty-eight states is a task which demands a large part of their hours of study to which they cannot easily add the time required to gain a fuller knowledge of South America. This must be the case; however, work cannot be done for a common ideal if no attention is paid to what exists beyond the Panama Canal. The popular proverb, expression of the wisdom which is not found in books but learned by experience, says that "to like each other it is necessary to know each other," and we up to now do not know each other.

The Americas have a mission to fulfill in the world; they are the depositories where are preserved the material treasures given them by nature, and the moral gifts which have disappeared or are disappearing of other peoples whose culture we have assimilated. To defend these treasures and to prevent these gifts from being impaired, we have to make a coördinated and sincere effort. Our dealings with each other should be marked by transparent honesty, so that deceit, disloyalty and trickery will not be hidden in the recesses of the soul.



AIR VIEW OF LA PAZ

The morality of peoples, in their international relations, is very different from that of men in their daily intercourse. Everything that is reprehensible among individuals is applauded among nations and when we call an act deceitful or immoral that same act, from the international political standpoint, is admirable, is great, the work of eminent brains and highly patriotic spirits. If an individual strips another of his property or deprives him of life, he goes to jail or to the gallows and receives social condemnation. If the same thing happens among nations, the interpretation is different and the despoiler and the killer is admired and applauded and imitated. As long as we are under the influence of such a strange thought that does nothing except strengthen another source of crime which is international criminality, we run the risk of becoming destroyed materially and morally in the long run. This same thought when it actuates men of government is fatal because it enables them to carry out the most reprehensible acts in the name of patriotism.

Bolivia, among the Latin American nations is distinguished for its natural wealth and its moral gifts. When it was born as a Republic in 1825 it occupied the third place in the South American continent; three international wars have despoiled it of very rich and large territories; today it is deprived of the possession, common to all nations, the ocean, but in spite of these reverses it is a people full of life; from its very sufferings it draws strength for the struggle and its fertile soil enables it to heal its wounds and repair its misfortunes.

It is no exaggeration to call Bolivia a land of promise. Effort and labor are fully rewarded in Bolivia. The stranger will find a new homeland there; with laws to protect his family and his property. Its

soil yields the most varied products. It has a wide variety of climates; highlands more than 13,000 feet above sea level where men labor and prosper; intermediate zones and sea level zones. The temperature ranges from the icy cold of the eternal snows to the suffocating heat of the tropics. Its fauna and flora are extremely varied and abundant like those of Brazil and Perú and its mineral deposits are unrivaled because they are unlimited. All we Bolivians need is to become better known, to have men of goodwill come and work with us so that by combining our efforts there will be realized the miracle of the transfiguration of the soil and of the cities and the resultant prosperity of the individual.

Its principal cities of the high plateau region are less than forty-eight hours by train from the coast; some of them only twelve hours distant; other regions of the North, North East and North West, are traversed by large navigable rivers which empty into the Madeira at the boundary of Brazil and form the largest river in the world, the Amazon, which flows into the Atlantic Ocean; on the East it is possible to travel to Europe and the United States by coming down the Paraguay River; on the South there are railroads which meet at la Quiaca and communication can be made with the Atlantic through the Argentine ports on the Paraná River or through Buenos Aires; the roads in the South East open to automobile traffic, traverse picturesque regions, pass through the city of Tarija, which still retains the beauty of colonial days, traverse the valleys of Entre Ríos, wind around the foothills of the Andes and cross the plains of Villamontes to Yacuiba the last Bolivian town on the Argentine frontier.

It is possible and easy to reach any point in the Andean region of Bolivia, the temperate valleys or

the tropical plains and forests by using either the Pacific or Atlantic route. The voyage is relatively comfortable and pleasant. The stranger who visits us as a tourist or the immigrant who comes to start a new life, will find modern cities and all desirable conveniences; it is to be pointed out that these conveniences are not those which are found in New York or other large cities in this country, but on a small scale there is available all that is necessary for making life comfortable and pleasant for a few days or for many years.

Let us then become better acquainted and to this end a well directed effort is necessary. Let professors

and students of the one country visit the other; let artists and writers, merchants, industrialists and business men of one country visit the other country. The advantages of the value of American money, the dollar, are considerable at this moment; the journey can be made and business can be done at a minimum outlay of money. Bolivia has entered on a constitutional era; its government is stable, its laws are respected, and rights and duties are duly protected. Let us become better acquainted so that the solidarity between our peoples will be more effective, interests more clearly defined and efforts better directed.

The History Term Paper as a Teaching Device

THELMA ROBISON

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The history term paper has staged a "come back." It serves a very useful purpose and makes a distinct contribution to the educational training of the pupil. In the hands of a skillful teacher who approaches the subject tactfully and handles the details cleverly, the term paper may become the outstanding experience of the pupil's history course, one he will long remember and for which he will be grateful.

The teacher should first have clearly in mind the objectives of the term paper. Briefly stated, these objectives might be:

1. To give opportunity for a sustained, rather extensive study of one topic.

In our pressure to get through a course of study, the pupil is too often bewildered with the complexity of the subject and the multiplicity of topics. He does not have an opportunity to thoroughly master any one topic. Just as he becomes interested in a certain subject he must go on to another. The term paper will give him the chance to continue his reading in one subject over a period of several weeks and will add to his interest.

2. To afford training in the technique of research—taking of notes, assembling material, etc.

For college preparatory students, this is particularly necessary; for all others it is highly desirable. We fail to realize just how much this study aid is needed. In a recent survey made among college freshmen from our high school, the most frequent answer to the question, "What more could the high school have done for me?" was, "Teach me how to take notes." We frown on the lecture method for high school classes, so it is here that the term paper

becomes a valuable vehicle for learning what might never be taught.

3. To afford opportunity for the pupil to arrive at that feeling of self-satisfaction which comes from the achievement of a big job.

The phrase, "term paper," makes the pupil feel he is doing something extraordinary. After the work is completed and the paper is finished, even the poorest pupil will feel pride in viewing the result of his labor. With a large enrollment it is often hard to give each pupil an individual problem in which he has the opportunity to excel. The term paper affords just such an opportunity. Here is his particular problem, and here is his big chance to show what he can do.

Having set up the objectives, we must then provide a method for attaining them. The method here described is one that the writer has found to be very successful. It has been followed for several years in classes in the American History Department of the Hammond High School.

STEPS IN PROCEDURE

- I. Create the proper "mind-set" toward the project.

Pupils are usually over-awed by the very mention of the word, "term paper." They feel it will be a boresome, burdensome task, devoid of value and interest. Considerable time should be spent by the teacher in trying to dispel this view. Let the pupils understand that plenty of time will be given and that they will not be forced to work under pressure if they plan their work schedule properly. Lead up to the project by getting discussions started on several

interesting topics. The pupils will then want to carry on an extended individual study for which they do not have time in the ordinary class period. Creating this important attitude will lead automatically to the next step.

II. Choice of subject.

Comments from pupils lead one to believe that choosing a suitable subject is very essential. Several of them have said they could have done better work if they had been able to get a topic in which they were more interested. Whenever possible, the pupil should make his own choice; if unable to do so, then the teacher must help him make the choice. Here the teacher's knowledge of the individual pupil will help. An acquaintance with pupil's family background, or with his hobbies may provide a fortunate clue.

A full week is none too long to spend on the choice of a subject. The list of possible subjects covering the period studied during the semester should be drawn up by joint action of pupils and teacher. It is very probable that a list numbering seventy subjects may result. The pupil should be encouraged to make a tentative choice, then spend two or three days in a preliminary survey to ascertain if he can readily find material on that topic. If not, then he should make another choice. To illustrate the wide range of subjects, a few of the most popular ones are here given for the period since the Civil War:

Conservation
Pan Americanism
The "Haves" and "Have Nots"
The Panama Canal
The United States in the Caribbean
Our Changing Foreign Policy
Labor Since the Civil War
Social Legislation
Negro Education
The Standard Oil—An Example of Big Business

III. Preparing the paper.

After the subject is chosen, mimeographed guide sheets are given to each pupil. A copy of this sheet follows:

Term Paper

Subject: Some topic that can be traced through the period from Civil War to the present.

Choice of subject due _____

First draft due _____

Completed paper due _____

Steps in Preparation

1. Collect material; take notes. Keep careful

record of all references read: name of book, name of author, pages read or name of magazine or newspaper, date of issue, name of article, name of author.

Use *Readers' Guide* to bring the subject up to date.

2. Make topic outline based on material you have found.
3. Write first draft of paper, using outline and save carefully to hand in with your final draft. First draft may be written with pencil on any kind of paper.
4. Write final draft on notebook paper (one side only) with ink, or type. When you copy exact words, use quotation marks. If you copy a long quotation, then use a footnote to give your reference. Final copy should be in the following form:
Title Page—should contain only name of paper and name of writer.
Second page or pages—bibliography.
Third page or pages—outline.
Fourth page—foreword or dedication (optional).
Fifth page—beginning of paper proper.
5. The value of your paper will depend on:
 - a. How carefully you have read and followed directions.
 - b. How widely you have read and how wisely you have chosen and organized your material.
 - c. How well you have made it your own.

Very early in the preparation, one class period should be devoted to practice in taking notes. If there is no library in the room, then pupils must bring in reference material for that day. Throughout the whole period of preparation, which should be no less than six weeks, one class hour a week will probably be used for a reading period. During this period the teacher can give individual attention to the pupil's study habits.

The requiring of an outline and first draft, in addition to other obvious advantages, helps to lessen the possibility that some pupil will copy a former paper as these first drafts must be handed in with the completed paper. They are then destroyed and not returned with the graded paper.

IV. Discussing the papers.

Each pupil should be required to tell the class the most important facts he has been able to find on the subject. Near the date when the papers are due, a part of each class period can be devoted to these reports. After the papers are handed in, extracts can be read from a few

of the best. It is also a good plan to save some of the best papers, if the pupils will relinquish them, to show as samples to pupils at the next term.

The results of such careful procedure justify the place of the term paper in history classes. Just what desirable outcomes have been obtained can perhaps best be explained by quotations from pupils themselves. They were asked to hand in an unsigned paper telling what they thought the term paper had meant to them. Any doubt one might have as to the value of such a project should be dispelled after reading these comments:

"I value term papers because (1) they represent individual initiative and labor; (2) after writing one the author can feel himself somewhat of an authority on that subject; (3) it gives training for college work; (4) it is stimulating to read the views of different authors; (5) to me the greatest thrill is seeing the finished product all typed and neat and knowing

that I have accomplished that much all by myself."

"It requires a lot of work, but what I wrote on was well worth my time and it gave me some new and conversable views on a topic I had not known in the past."

"You may not like your subject at first but as you progress your viewpoint changes."

"Well, I tell you, I think a term paper shows just what you have in you. If you have enough ambition you can really turn out some dandy work."

"It makes you realize how deep a seemingly simple subject can be."

"I feel that I have learned something I will remember for years to come."

"It helps you to know just how much you actually don't know."

"It is a lot of work, but the reading, the organization of thoughts and the effort to show originality are all important educational factors."

A Dramatization of the Constitutional Convention of 1787

FLORA M. STAPLE

State Teachers College, Duluth, Minnesota

In these days when democracy must struggle to preserve itself in the world, it is particularly important that the social science teacher be constantly alert to opportunities for developing an understanding of democratic processes and democratic instruments.

The eighth grade students of our laboratory school in working out a dramatization of the Constitutional Convention of 1787 have as a result, I feel, a fuller realization of the workings of a democracy and of the nature and purpose of the Constitution. At the same time their experiences in planning and giving it were valuable. They have learned better to work together coöperatively; they have learned to do careful research; they have learned to organize and use what they read; they have had the pleasure of contributing something of value to an adult group—for they gave the dramatization first for their parents and later for the students of the college.

They attempted to have the characters express views that are true to history. In fact several lines are in the exact words of the members of the convention. For convenience in acting, it was decided to take up in a single scene some of the most im-

portant questions discussed in the convention, and for the sake of the dramatic effect the meeting is opened with a part of the preamble of our national Constitution and is ended by Franklin's reference to the "rising sun."

THE CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION OF 1787

*A Dramatization
By Eighth Grade*

CHARACTERS

Washington, Madison, Franklin, and other members of the Convention of 1787, in all equalling the number of pupils in the class. (Number of characters and lines may be adjusted to size of the class and time to be given to the dramatization.)

Time: May 25 to September 17, 1787.

Scene: Independence Hall, Philadelphia. In front is a raised platform on which is a desk and chair with a sun painted on the high back. Chairs or desks in the room are arranged in semicircular rows.

DRAMATIZATION

(Delegates to the Convention saunter into the hall in groups while greeting each other and conversing. When all the delegates have assembled, James Wilson takes the place of temporary chairman and addresses the group.)

JAMES WILSON of Pennsylvania: The purpose of this convention is to revise the Articles of Confederation "in order to form a more perfect Union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity." Our first need is a permanent presiding officer of this convention. Nominations are in order for president.

ROBERT MORRIS: Mr. Chairman.

JAMES WILSON: Mr. Morris of Pennsylvania.

ROBERT MORRIS: I nominate George Washington, leader of our soldiers in the struggle for independence.

JOHN RUTLEDGE of South Carolina: I second the motion. I am confident that the choice of George Washington will be unanimous. His name will tend to prevent any adverse observations in regard to the acts of this body.

JAMES WILSON: All those in favor of George Washington for president say, "Aye."

All: Aye!

(Robert Morris and John Rutledge escort George Washington to the president's chair while Mr. Wilson retires to seat vacated by Washington.)

GEORGE WASHINGTON: Gentlemen, I greatly appreciate the confidence you have shown in me. I lament my want of better qualifications for the position and ask the indulgence of the House toward the involuntary errors which my inexperience may occasion.

JAMES WILSON: Mr. President.

GEORGE WASHINGTON: Mr. Wilson of Pennsylvania.

JAMES WILSON: I move that a secretary be appointed.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON: I second the motion and nominate William Jackson of Connecticut.

WASHINGTON: All in favor of William Jackson for secretary signify by saying, "Aye."

Majority of members: Aye!

WASHINGTON: William Jackson has been elected secretary.

JOHN DICKINSON: Mr. President.

WASHINGTON: Mr. Dickinson of Delaware.

JOHN DICKINSON: This is a very critical time for our country. There is much trouble and I fear that if the people know of our discussions which will of course include disagreements, there may be more riots, and individuals among us will be harshly criticized for the views they take. We may

not as freely express our opinions if we are subject to severe and hasty criticism. Therefore, I propose that we close and lock the doors and swear each member of this convention to secrecy.

JOHN LANGDON: I second the motion.

WASHINGTON: It has been moved and seconded that the doors be locked and the members of this convention be sworn to secrecy as to the discussions carried on here. Are there any remarks?

Several: Question!

WASHINGTON: All in favor say, "Aye." (Great majority vote, "Aye.") It is carried. Mr. Paterson, please lock the door. (Mr. Paterson locks the doors.) Repeat the oath after me: "I hereby swear to keep all the matters discussed in these meetings a secret, and on no condition betray my word." All repeat the oath.)

As has been said, we are gathered here to amend the Articles of Confederation in order to give greater power to Congress and to form a more perfect union of states. Shall we begin?

ROBERT YATES: Mr. President.

WASHINGTON: Mr. Yates of New York.

ROBERT YATES: As has been suggested, there is bound to be difficulty over any decided changes we may suggest, and so in order that the states will adopt any changes, I think we should be careful that such changes in the Articles of Confederation be very slight.

WASHINGTON: It is too probable that no plan we propose will be adopted. Perhaps another dreadful conflict is to be sustained. If, to please the people, we offer that which we ourselves disapprove, how can we afterwards defend our work? Let us raise a standard to which the wise and the honest can repair, the event is in the hand of God and so, even though we fear the people of different states may not like them, let us make any changes we really feel are best for our country.

EDMUND RANDOLPH: Mr. President.

WASHINGTON: Mr. Randolph of Virginia.

EDMUND RANDOLPH: The government under the Articles of Confederation is very weak; it has no means of enforcing its laws, it cannot prevent nor conduct a war, punish a state for defying its laws, nor protect itself from foreign invasion. Its power is less than that of the state. The Confederation was made when no trouble over trade had arisen among the states; when there had been no rebellions to put down, nor paper money circulation. There things had not been foreseen and the government was not given enough power to deal with them. As a remedy for these conditions, we, the delegates from Virginia, offer this set of resolutions based on republican principles.

First, there shall be a national legislature in

which the American people instead of the states should be represented. For Federal legislation there will be one assembly elected directly by the people of the states, not their legislatures, with its members apportioned according to population. The members of an upper house should be elected by the lower house. In both of these houses representatives would vote as individuals and not as States.

Second, a National executive, having the power to veto or sign bills before they are accepted, shall be instituted chosen by the national legislature.

Third, a national judiciary shall be established composed of superior and inferior courts, the judges of which shall be chosen by the national legislature, and shall hold office during good behavior. This provision would make the central government, in place of the state governments, judges of the power of laws of the central government.

Fourth, provision should be made for the amending of the Articles of Union. Then if new problems arise, actions can be made for handling them.

Fifth, provision should be made for the admission of states: Later new states may be made from the Northwest Territory.

Sixth, a republican form of government shall be guaranteed by the United States to every state. We would not want some of our states to adopt monarchical form of governments.

Seventh, Congress, under the articles of Confederation, is to continue in power until the Articles of Union are adopted.

Eighth, the executive, legislative, and judiciary powers of the states shall be bound under oath to support the Articles of Union.

ROBERT YATES: (Excitedly.) It's Revolutionary!

LUTHER MARTIN: (Excitedly.) It's too radical! Why, the power of the states is in danger—the people won't stand for such a revision!

GEORGE READ of Delaware: (With much feeling.) With a representation based on population, some districts will not be well represented, while others get a lion's share! I object to the plan of the gentleman from Virginia!

ROBERT MORRIS: I suggest that we deal with these provisions separately and discuss them from every angle so as to pick out the good points.

DAVID BREARLEY: Mr. President.

WASHINGTON: Mr. Brearley of New Jersey.

DAVID BREARLEY: The plan of the gentleman from Virginia provided for representation by population. In this case the small states will not receive equal representation with the large ones. I object to such an unfair plan!

LUTHER MARTIN: It's robbery, and unjust! I suggest we leave it as it is under the Articles of Confederation!

WASHINGTON: (Firmly.) Will the gentlemen please come to order?

RUFUS KING: Mr. President.

WASHINGTON: Mr. King of Massachusetts.

RUFUS KING: It is my belief that the majority of people should be considered in this case, and, as this is a republican government, representative primarily of the people, not the states, the people should be given the chance to elect their representatives on a population basis. I think . . .

GEORGE READ: (Interrupting excitedly.) You're not going to suffer from this arrangement! It's no wonder you talk for it; your state has a large population which is very likely to become greater. A state with a small area and no prospects to expand . . .

WASHINGTON: The gentleman from Delaware is out of order. Proceed, Mr. King.

RUFUS KING: I merely would like to impress the fact that the people's rights to representation in their government should not be crushed by the selfish motives of a few small states.

WILLIAM PATERSON: Mr. President.

WASHINGTON: Mr. Paterson of New Jersey.

WILLIAM PATERSON: I agree with Mr. Read that the small states should have a voice in the government. Why should we be at a disadvantage merely because of our smaller population? I offer an amendment to the Articles of Confederation which, in my opinion is more just and less destructive to state powers.

We suggest that the federal legislature should consist of one house. This Congress should have the power to regulate foreign and domestic commerce, levy duties on imports, and raise internal revenue by means of a Stamp Act. Each state shall, in this way, have an equal number of representatives and equal votes.

Mr. Madison addresses the chair. (In the rest of the dramatization the procedure for getting the floor will be omitted in the written form.)

JAMES MADISON: It is my opinion that the plan offered by the gentleman from New Jersey offers no remedy for the weakness of the present government. A government under this system would represent the states only, and not consider the people who are also a part of the government.

(Mr. King obtains the floor.)

RUFUS KING: I agree with Mr. Madison heartily. If this plan were to be adopted we would be no better off than we are now. I am in favor of the two-house plan.

(Mr. Paterson obtains the floor.)

WILLIAM PATERSON: Our aim in this convention is

to amend the Articles, not to remodel the government. States are now, and should always be equally represented. There is no more reason why a great individual state, contributing much should have more votes than a small state contributing little, than that a rich citizen should have more votes than a poor person! The big states may unite on a plan of representation according to population, but remember that they have no authority to compel the others to conform to the plan.

(Roger Sherman of Connecticut obtains the floor.)

ROGER SHERMAN: The convention is making no headway by this quibbling. I, therefore, suggest that a plan be adopted including both the demands of the small and the large states. I move that our legislature include a Lower House, elected by the people according to population; and an Upper House, elected by the State legislatures, having an equal number of representatives from each state.

(Mr. Franklin of Pennsylvania obtains the floor.)

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN: I second the motion. "When a joiner wishes to fit two boards, he sometimes pares off a bit of each." Since each group is determined to have its own way, let us, then, compromise according to Mr. Sherman's suggestion.

WASHINGTON: The motion has been made and seconded that the Upper House be represented equally by the states, and that the Lower House be elected according to population. All in favor signify by the usual response.

Six states: Aye. Five states: Nay.

WASHINGTON: The motion is carried.

ROBERT YATES: This convention was called to revise the Articles of Confederation, not to adopt a new Constitution. That is altogether too radical. I am not going to stay here any longer. (He gets up and leaves.)

WASHINGTON: Gentlemen, we must have more patience if we expect to make a better government. We must work together.

(Mr. Langdon, New Hampshire, obtains the floor.)

JOHN LANGDON: We have just decided that representatives shall be elected according to population. Just how many people does that include? Certainly the thousands of Negroes in the South shouldn't be counted when representatives are apportioned! That would give the South an unfair advantage.

(Mr. Pinckney, South Carolina, obtains the floor.)

CHARLES C. PINCKNEY: I see no reason why the Negro should not be counted as long as representation is to be based on population. The Negroes make up a large part of the population of this country.

(Mr. Paterson, New Jersey, obtains the floor.)

WILLIAM PATERSON: Has a man in Virginia a number of votes in proportion to the number of slaves? No. If they belong, why should they be represented in the general government?

(Mr. Sherman of Connecticut obtains the floor.)

ROGER SHERMAN: I could never agree to give such encouragement to the slave-trade as would be given by allowing the Southern States a representation for their Negroes.

(Rufus King of Massachusetts obtains the floor.)

RUFUS KING: If the South wants the Negroes to count as part of the population when representatives are apportioned, they must also be willing to count the Negroes for other purposes. Taxes must be distributed among the states. Are the Southern states willing to count the Negro a part of the population when taxes are apportioned? We must be consistent in everything.

(Mr. Pinckney obtains the floor.)

CHARLES C. PINCKNEY: It's an outrage! You Northern men try to keep us from our share of representation in Congress by not counting the Negro as part of the population, but when it is a question of taxation you reverse your attitude so that we will pay more than our share of the taxes!

(Mr. Madison of Virginia obtains the floor.)

JAMES MADISON: It will be impossible to please entirely every section represented here, so we must be considerate of each other's plan. We have settled difficulties by compromise before. I, therefore suggest, that five slaves be counted as three white men, as basis for the representation and taxation count. In this way the Southern States will have less representation in Congress, but taxation will be lower than if the other plan were used.

(Mr. Mason of Virginia obtains the floor.)

GEORGE MASON: I think the compromise the gentleman, Mr. Madison, suggested will settle the issue. I move that five slaves be counted as three white men in proportioning the taxes and representatives in the lower house.

WILLIAM JACKSON: I second the motion.

WASHINGTON: The motion has been made and seconded that three-fifths of the slaves be counted in proportioning the representatives and taxes of states. All who agree signify by the usual sign.

(Northerners raise their hands, and also the men from Virginia, and the two Pinckneys of South Carolina.) The motion is carried.

(James Wilson obtains the floor.)

JAMES WILSON: During the last few years the slave trade has increased greatly. Every year more and more ignorant blacks are brought into the country, lowering the standard of our people. I think it is high time to stop this barbarous practice!

(John Rutledge obtains the floor.)

JOHN RUTLEDGE: The gentleman from Massachusetts seems to be unaware of the South's need of slave labor. Without slave labor our plantations would have to stop raising crops. Then, too, the

South cannot afford expensive white labor.

By the Navigation Acts we have been heavily charged for carrying rice, indigo, tobacco, and cotton to the North and Europe. If the Northern states are permitted to pass similar laws under the new Constitution, we shall again be at a disadvantage. While the North is not benefiting from slavery, we are certainly not being aided by their Navigation Acts.

(Gouverneur Morris obtains the floor.)

GOVERNEUR MORRIS: As I see it, the South wants a prolongation of the foreign slave trade, and the Northern States the right to pass navigation acts. By a compromise each section might be granted part of its request while conceding something to the other section.

I, therefore, move that the foreign slave trade be open for twenty more years, or until 1808, and that Congress may pass laws effecting navigation by a majority vote, but at no time tax exports.

(George Mason of Virginia obtains the floor.)

GEORGE MASON: I second the motion.

WASHINGTON: The motion has been made and seconded that the foreign slave trade be allowed to continue for twenty more years, and that Congress may pass commercial laws by a majority vote, but at no time tax exports. All in favor signify by the usual sign.

(All except the North Carolina and South Carolina delegations vote in the affirmative.)

(Robert Bassett of Delaware obtains the floor.)

ROBERT BASSETT: I move that the Federal government establish a postal system with uniform rates and service.

MR. BREARLEY: I second the motion.

WASHINGTON: It has been moved that the Federal government be given the power to establish a postal system with uniform rates and service. All in favor say "Aye." Those opposed. . . . The motion is carried.

(Luther Martin obtains the floor.)

LUTHER MARTIN: To provide better postal service, we shall need to establish better roads. The poor condition of the roads has been one of the biggest reasons for the slow service by our present postal system. I, therefore, move that the Federal government be given the power to establish post roads.

GEORGE MASON: I second the motion.

WASHINGTON: It has been moved and seconded that the Federal government be given the power to establish post roads. All in favor say, "Aye." Those opposed. . . . The motion is carried.

(George Read obtains the floor.)

GEORGE READ: One of the greatest faults of our present government is that there is no responsible executive to enforce the laws.

JAMES WILSON: A single executive is all that is

necessary. I move that the government provide for a single executive.

MR. LANGDON: I second the motion.

WASHINGTON: It has been moved and seconded that the Constitution provide for a single executive. All in favor say, "Aye." Opposed. . . . The motion is carried.

(Alexander Hamilton obtains the floor.)

ALEXANDER HAMILTON: Other questions as to the executive should be his power and the duration of his term. In order to make the central government efficient his power should be great. I move that he be appointed for life and have power of veto which the legislature is without power to overrule.

(Much commotion showing objection.)

(Charles Pinckney obtains the floor.)

CHARLES PINCKNEY: I second the motion.

WASHINGTON: It has been moved and seconded that the executive be appointed for life and have power of veto that the legislature is without power to overrule. Are there any remarks?

Many voices: Question!!

WASHINGTON: All those in favor say, "Aye." Opposed. . . .

(One or two voices: Aye. Many voices: Nay!!!)

(George Mason of Virginia obtains the floor.)

GEORGE MASON: We must think of another question in electing the executive. By whom should he be elected? The people or the legislature? I favor the Virginia plan which provides for the election of the executive by the legislative body. In this way, men will vote for the President who are familiar with public affairs and are responsible men.

(Mr. Gerry obtains the floor.)

GERRY: I strongly oppose the idea that the executive should be elected by the legislature. This would lead to much intrigue. This is a government representative of the people. Therefore, they should elect their chief executive.

(Oliver Ellsworth obtains the floor.)

OLIVER ELLSWORTH: The people are not familiar with men in public life to know who would make the best executive. I suggest, therefore, that the people elect men whom they know to form an Electoral College. These men, representing the people, but better acquainted with public affairs; then in turn will elect the President. I suggest that the number of electors be equal to the number of representatives and senators in each state.

(Roger Sherman, Connecticut, obtains the floor.)

ROGER SHERMAN: I move that the President shall be elected by a majority vote, but that if there is no majority in the Electoral College the House of Representatives shall choose the President from among the five highest.

JOHN DICKINSON of Delaware: I second the motion.

WASHINGTON: It has been moved and seconded that the House of Representatives elect the President in case there is no majority in the Electoral College. All in favor say, "Aye." Opposed. . . .

The settlement of this last issue finishes the main work of the convention. I shall appoint two committees who will organize and write the constitution in correct form. On the committee of detail I appoint Messrs. Rutledge of South Carolina, Randolph, of Virginia, Gorham of Massachusetts, Ellsworth of Connecticut, and Wilson of Pennsylvania. On the committee of style I appoint Messrs. Hamilton of New York, Gouverneur Morris of Pennsylvania, Madison of Virginia, and King of Massachusetts. We shall adjourn until these committees are ready to report.

We have completed a great, and I hope, lasting work. May the people approve of our labors.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN: I have often, during the course of this session, looked at that sun on the

back of the president's chair without being able to tell if it were *rising* or *setting*. But now I have the happiness to know that it is a *rising* and not a *setting* sun.

After the dramatization parents and pupils formed a discussion group in which there was lively questioning and discussion related to the Constitution and the problems of the period of our history in which it was made. The value of such association of adolescents and adults needs no comment.

Evidence of the interest this activity aroused is found in the fact that the children decided to organize a civic club and patterned its constitution after the national one. The eighth grade composes the upper house, the seventh, the lower. Stimulation of an interest in government of today was also shown, when on a morning after a decision was handed down by the Supreme Court, some of the pupils hurriedly entered the school room, turned to the Constitution in a history book, and later expressed themselves as agreeing or disagreeing with the majority of the Supreme Court judges.

The Campaign of Noise, Nonsense, and Numbers

SIDELIGHTS ON THE WHIG CAMPAIGN OF 1840

CLAUDE C. LAMMERS

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I

How could a political party without unity save in the desire to "turn the rascals out," without united leadership, and without a candidate of recognized ability, win a presidential campaign against a party already in power, united in the support of its candidate, and entrenched through the use of patronage? The answer was to be found in a campaign of "noise, nonsense, and numbers."

In December, 1839, in a newly-constructed Lutheran church in Harrisburg, the Whig Convention reached toward the wings of the political stage to bestow its endorsement for the nation's highest office upon William Henry Harrison. Henry Clay undoubtedly had the strongest personal following of any Whig candidate, and yet many astute politicians were not convinced of his "availability" for 1840. Clay was a slaveholder and opposed to the activities of northern abolitionists; he was a Mason, and the influence of the Anti-masonic party was still a factor in New York and Pennsylvania; he was a distinguished political leader at a time when Americans

had great confidence in the ability of the common man. Accordingly the followers of Thurlow Weed, political strategist of New York state, successfully maneuvered for the nomination of Harrison; they trusted in the vote-getting powers of one who, like Andrew Jackson, was applauded for having whipped the Indians and the British on the field of battle.

William Henry Harrison was the son of a Virginia plantation owner who was a signer of the Declaration of Independence. As a young man, Harrison was sent to Philadelphia to take up the study of medicine, but he left after a short time to embark upon a varied career as a soldier, farmer, and politician. Harrison was governor of the Indiana Territory for several years, during which time he directed the Indian war which culminated in the battle of Tippecanoe. Governor Harrison became "General" Harrison in the War of 1812, and his name came to be associated with the American victory on the Thames in Lower Canada. But Harrison was by no means a military genius. In fact, there was so

(Continued on page 315)

ILLUSTRATED SECTION

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THE PROTESTANT REVOLT AND THE WARS OF RELIGION

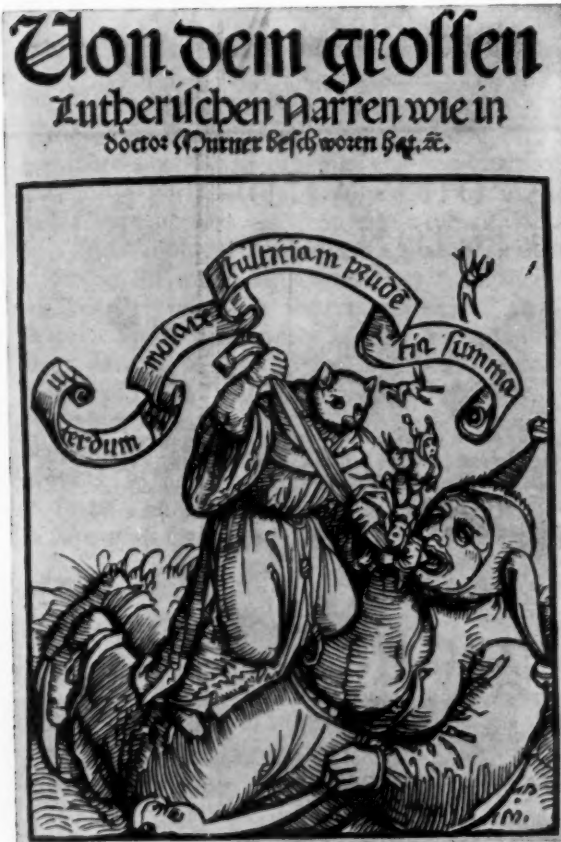


A veritable flood of pamphlets appeared in connection with the Reformation. These often bore on their title pages pictorial representations suggestive of the modern cartoon. This one published in 1521 attacking the sale of indulgences is an interesting portrayal of such a sale.

On another pro-Luther tract the artist represents the "Wittenberg nightingale" (Luther), perched in a tree surrounded by the other denizens of the animal world. Above the picture appears the following: "The Wittenberg nightingale is heard everywhere." Below is the Scriptural quotation, "I tell you that if these shou'd hold their peace, the stones would immediately cry out." Luke xix.



THE PROTESTANT REVOLT AND THE WARS OF RELIGION



In this attack upon Luther his teachings are looked upon as the utterances of a fool. It is the height of prudence to make fools swallow their own folly, is the substance of the Latin quotation accompanying the picture.

The title page to the right represents Luther as a seven-headed monstrosity, exhibiting among other characteristics those of a man "with bees in his bonnet" and those of a Barabbas. (See Mathew xxvii.)

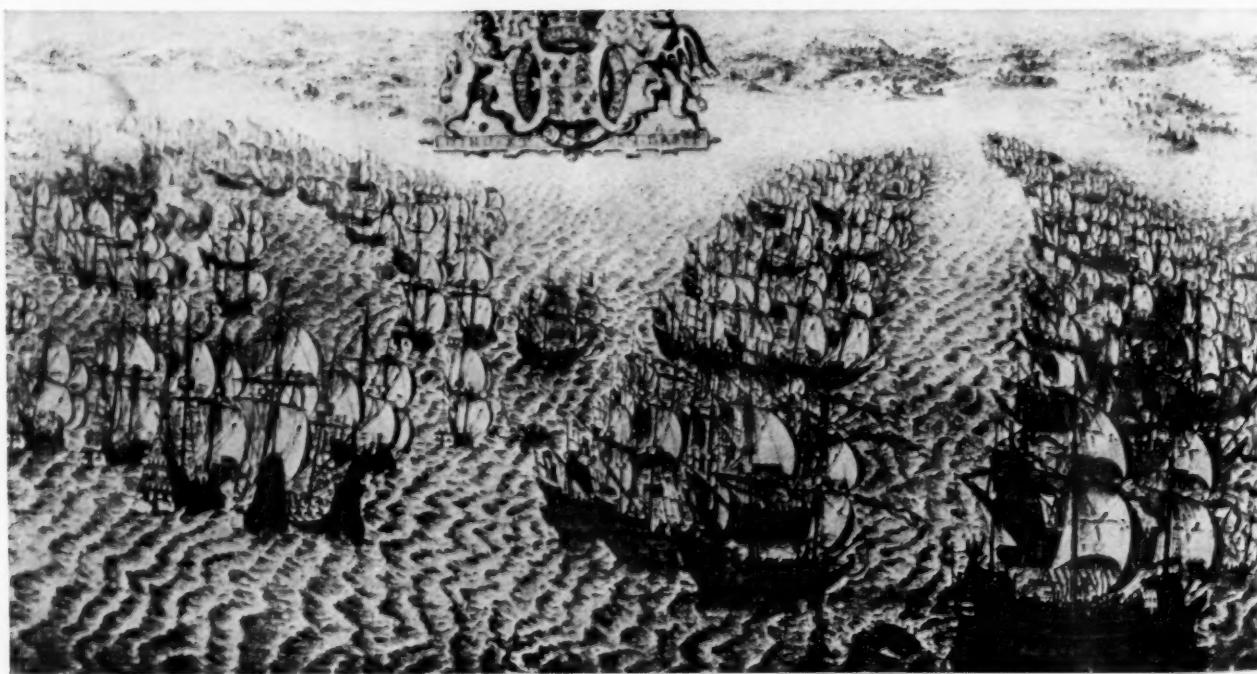
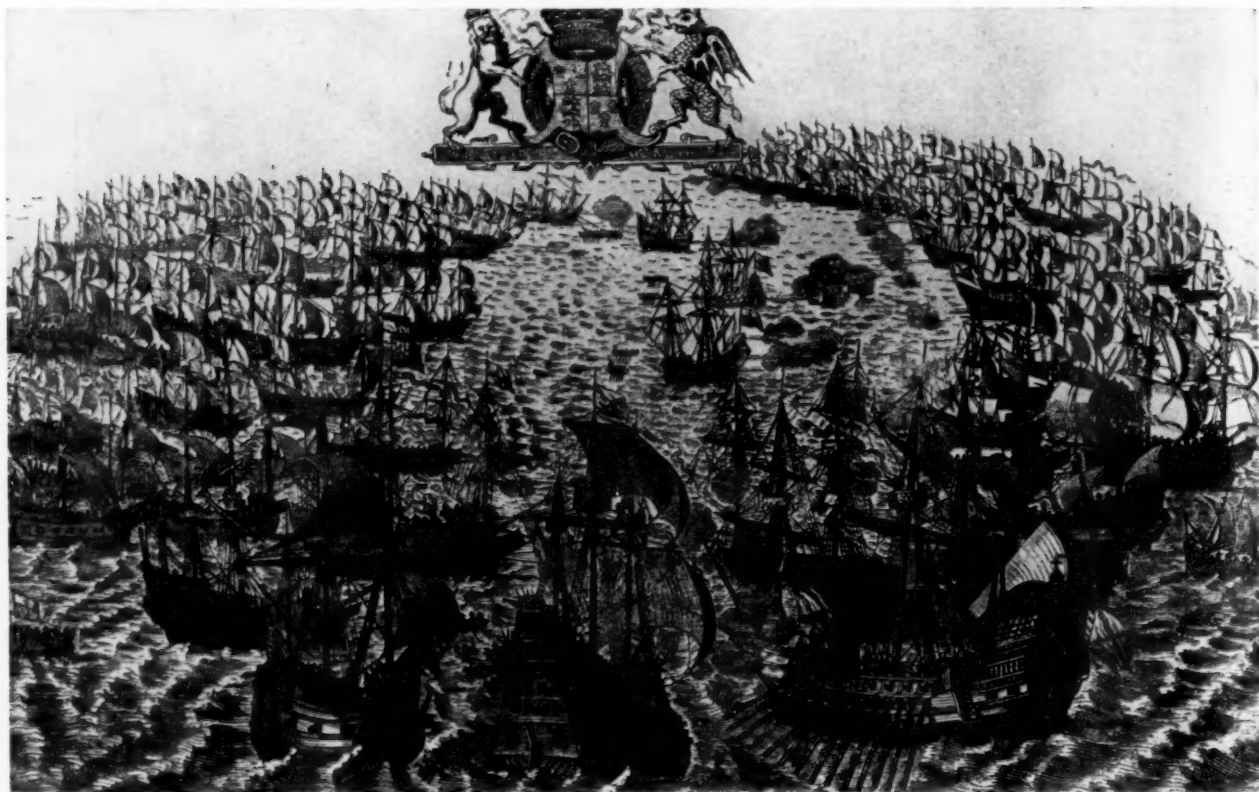


THE PROTESTANT REVOLT AND THE WARS OF RELIGION



These contemporary prints portray some of the excesses of the movement (above) the execution of Counts Egmont and Horn in the Market Square at Brussels in 1568; (below) the massacre of St. Bartholomew in 1572.

THE PROTESTANT REVOLT AND THE WARS OF RELIGION



In these two views from tapestries which formerly hung in the English House of Lords the English commemorated the defeat of the Spanish Armada.

much criticism of his conduct that his name was at first omitted from the list of those receiving gold medals from Congress in recognition for war services. Even after a House investigating committee had recommended that Harrison be granted the medal, its casting was subject to so many delays that it was not until 1826 that the presentation was actually made.¹

Harrison's principal political experience included brief periods in Congress, a short period of service as American minister to Colombia, and his previously mentioned service as territorial governor of Indiana. This was certainly not a brilliant career for one aspiring to the highest office in the land, and yet Harrison was proud to "stand on his record." But it was only against a narrow conception of the President's responsibilities that he measured his qualifications, for to him it was the duty of the President to carry out the wishes of the American people and not attempt to force action in a direction that he, personally, might have chosen.² Harrison aimed to become the chosen servant rather than the chosen leader.

II

The nomination of Harrison was openly greeted with derision among the followers of Clay. One chance remark in this chorus of disparaging comment gained newspaper circulation and became a tremendously important factor in the Whig victory. The remark ran thus: "Give him a barrel of hard cider, and settle a pension of \$2000 a year on him, . . . and he will sit for the remainder of his days in a log cabin."³ This taunt was the spark that the Whigs needed. Their candidate was thereafter the "Log Cabin and Hard Cider" candidate, a man after the hearts of true Americans!

Meanwhile the Democrats were pursuing a very different course. At their nominating convention which met at Baltimore in May, 1840, they speedily renominated Van Buren. The Democratic standard-bearer had a background of party politics in New York which was the basis for some attack, but Stanwood says of him that by 1840 "age, responsibility, and experience had made him almost a statesman."⁴ He was a man of fine bearing, possessed of culture and fine manners.

The most troublesome problem in the Democratic Convention was, strangely enough, the choice of a candidate for the Vice-Presidency. The incumbent in that office, Colonel Johnson, was decidedly unpopular among certain factions of his party, but the op-

position appeared unable to agree upon any other candidate. This problem was solved by temporarily evading it. A resolution was passed recommending that the various states reach an agreement before the fall election.

The Democrats then accepted a set of nine resolutions which constituted their platform. In brief, the resolutions pledged their party to a strict construction of the Constitution; they declared that internal improvements, banking, and control of domestic institutions (slavery) were matters reserved for state and local governments to decide.

No one could say what the Whig policies were in 1840; there had been no set of party principles adopted by its nominating convention. But this was a matter of small concern to those who participated in the giant Whig celebration which was held in Baltimore at the same time as the Democratic Convention. The Whigs were truly in a campaign of "noise, nonsense, and numbers"—yet of what consequence was this criticism as long as the ball was "a-rolling on, for Tippecanoe and Tyler too!" The enthusiasm of the Whigs was echoed in the partisan press. Speaking of the parade which featured the Baltimore gathering, one editor wrote in this extravagant vein: "All that pen could write, all that mouth of man could speak, all that the imagination can conceive of beauty, grandeur, and sublimity, would fall short, far short, of the reality."⁵

The Whig conventions and mass meetings were unique in our political history. The crowds that gathered at the rallies were said to generate happiness, and "one who was detected with a serious countenance was suspected of being an unrepentant 'Loco-foco.'"⁶ (The term "loco-foco" was first used to designate a political faction in New York state, but during 1840 it was sometimes used to apply to all Democrats.) Enthusiasm at the Whig rallies was raised to a high pitch by the use of songs. The voices thus raised in song were almost entirely men's voices, for women were in such a decided minority that their presence was often cause for newspaper comment. When the state convention was held at Macon, Georgia, a special section was reserved for the ladies.⁷

Some rallies assumed the aspects of immense picnics. One interesting account is given of the "substantials" furnished at Wheeling to a gathering of 25,000. The crowd is said to have consumed 360 hams, 26 sheep, 20 calves, 1500 lbs. beef, 8000 lbs. bread, 1012 lbs. cheese, and 4500 pies.⁸ Whig leaders were much concerned with estimating the size of their crowds, which on several occasions exceeded

¹ Dorothy Burne Goebel, *William Henry Harrison: A Political Biography* (Indianapolis, 1926), p. 202.

² John J. Crittenden, *The Life of John J. Crittenden* (Philadelphia, 1873), I, 112.

³ John B. McMaster, *A History of the People of the United States* (New York, 1883-1913), VI, 562.

⁴ Edward Stanwood, *A History of the Presidency from 1788-1916* (Boston, 1898), I, 190.

⁵ *Niles' National Register* (Baltimore, 1811-1846), LVIII, 152.

⁶ George W. Julian, *Political Recollections, 1840-1872* (Chicago, 1884), p. 16.

⁷ *Niles' National Register*, LVIII, 408.

⁸ *Ibid.*, LIX, 39.

50,000. The estimates were made by "civil engineers" who calculated the area occupied by the crowd, and assumed that there would be an average of four persons to each square yard.⁹ According to that formula, there was not much elbow room for tipping a jug!

The log cabin theme arose out of the taunt that Harrison *would be* satisfied to live in a log cabin; the Whig campaign, however, was intended to lead the common people to believe that such a primitive structure was really his home. The actual Harrison residence was at North Bend, not far from the city of Cincinnati, on the north bank of the Ohio River. Originally one small wing of the home had been a log cabin, but Harrison did not live in the house until it had been greatly enlarged. In 1840 the structure was an imposing one for the West; from nineteen front windows one could look out upon the beautiful river valley. Life at North Bend retained much of the flavor of Harrison's parental plantation home in Virginia.¹⁰

Enthusiastic Whigs erected log cabins at conspicuous places in towns and cities, and used these structures as campaign headquarters. Miniature log cabins were carried in parades. Log-cabin pictures graced alike the walls of parlors and bar-rooms, while the county fairs in that year abounded in log-cabin fancy work. The children delighted in their tiny log cabins, filled with candy. Enthusiasm also ran high over the names "Tippecanoe" and Tyler. The name "Tippecanoe" was given to steamboats—and also to children! "Tip" was a favorite name for dogs, and many a team of horses responded to the names of "Tip" and "Ty."¹¹ The prominence given to the "Hard Cider" theme aroused some objection from temperance and religious organizations. "Let cider barrels be adopted, if need be, as political insignia," they said, "but let them be empty. Any party which shall outrage the consciences of the religious community need not expect its vote."¹²

The Democrats tried, but usually with less success, to stage mass meetings which would equal those of their rivals. Nevertheless, Horace Greeley probably summarized the situation pretty well when he said: "They had . . . good speakers, and large meetings; but we were far ahead of them in singing, and in electioneering emblems and mottoes which appealed to popular sympathies."¹³

The campaign was in no way a debate on national issues. The Whigs charged the Democrats with mal-

administration; Martin Van Buren was called a "free trader in politics" and his cohorts were charged with "voting for their bread." The Democrats centered their attack on the Whig candidate. They criticized his war record; they charged him with trying to "sell white men into slavery" because he supported as a state senator the proposed Ohio law providing that those guilty of petty larceny might have their services sold at public sale in order that the fines could be paid; they contended that, as a presidential candidate, he was a mere puppet, and unable to speak for himself. It is definitely known that the Whigs appointed a committee to supervise Harrison's correspondence in order that he might not embarrass the party by saying too much!¹⁴ This charge, however, Harrison emphatically denied by claiming that he was receiving only routine secretarial assistance.

The election (or "canvass" as it was often called then) was held on different days in the various states. From the time of the first returns the indications pointed to a Whig victory. The elation of the Whigs increased while the astounded Democrats cried out that the victory was being achieved by fraud. Democratic papers talked of "pipe layers," illegal and fraudulent voters "raked and scraped from sewers, jails, and penitentiaries."¹⁵ The electoral vote was 234 for Harrison and only 60 for Van Buren. The popular vote was not so decisive, showing 1,275,016 for Harrison and 1,129,102 for his opponent.

The Whig victory was the signal for many celebrations throughout the land, extending to the far-off territory of Wisconsin. But the Whigs at Milwaukee were doomed to disappointment in their celebration, for the Democrats carried off the animal which was being barbecued for the occasion. In addition to this, the Whigs found that a shortage of apples had made it necessary to substitute other products in the making of the cider—the result was a victory beverage of dubious merit!¹⁶

III

What explains the unique nature of the campaign of 1840? One answer is that this election year coincided with a period of rampant emotionalism which found its expression in such forms as camp-meetings and the establishment of unorthodox religious sects. Turner, for example, called this campaign "a mid-western camp meeting on a large scale."¹⁷

A second explanation of the campaign is to be found in the fact that the amount of education possessed by the average voter was probably less in 1840

⁹ *Ibid.*, LIX, 56.

¹⁰ Dorothy Burne Goebel, *William Henry Harrison*, p. 205.

¹¹ William H. Seward, *Autobiography of William H. Seward* (New York, 1877), pp. 495-497.

¹² John B. McMaster, *A History of the People of the United States*, VI, 575.

¹³ Horace Greeley, *Recollections of a Busy Life* (New York, 1868), p. 134.

¹⁴ E. Malcolm Carroll, *Origins of the Whig Party* (Durham, N.C., 1925), p. 168.

¹⁵ *Niles' National Register*, vol. LIX, p. 265.

¹⁶ H. E. Cole, *Stagecoach and Tavern Tales of the Old Northwest* (Cleveland, 1930), p. 294.

¹⁷ Frederick Jackson Turner, *The Frontier in American History* (New York, 1920), p. 351.

than in any other presidential election. The extension of the suffrage from Washington's day to Jackson's had leaped far ahead of the development of public schools; therefore, assuming that the earlier property qualifications tended to restrict the suffrage to the better educated citizens, the rapid shift of manhood suffrage had lowered the educational qualifications of the voters as a group. The popular vote in 1840 was *sixty per cent greater* than in 1836, an indication that the "noise and nonsense" had persuaded a large percentage of this newly expanded electorate to use its franchise. After 1840, on the other hand, manhood suffrage was a reality, and in subsequent elections the educational qualifications of the voters reflected the growing efficiency of our system of public schools.

And what is the explanation for the Whig victory?

The election of 1836 showed that the three Whig candidates¹⁸ had a vote almost equal to that of Van Buren. This was an indication of potential Whig strength which awaited a united leadership. The various forces which had tended to draw the Whigs apart were minimized by selecting a candidate who was not associated with these troublesome issues. In addition to this, the Whig cause was undoubtedly aided in great measure by the more or less mythical conception of Harrison which was created in the campaign of "noise, nonsense, and numbers."

¹⁸ In 1836 the Whigs despaired of any agreement upon a candidate and resorted to the expedient of running several candidates in the hope that the election might be forced into the House of Representatives, with the Whig party then able to exercise a voice in the final selection.

American History Retold in the Daily Press

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Ask a student to speculate on the outcome of the present European war, and very likely he will be eager to tell you the latest rumor, as he has read or heard of it through various agencies—radio, newspaper, or conversation. Yet, ask a student to relate some event occurring in early American history and his interest immediately lapses. The present and future intrigue him, but the past is past, so why not forget it?

The average student disdainfully pursues his study of American history, regarding it as something to be digested, like spinach, because he has been told that history is "good" for him. In the course of study he comes to recall so-called vital names, terms, events, and accepts them as listlessly as he does the annual birthday card from Aunt Judy. In brief, history, like many other subjects, does not stir his curiosity. It lacks vitality, or, as slang puts it, "oomph."

Instructors in American history and other social studies have for a long time investigated methods of vitalizing subject matter, and making it more functional for students. In the last fifteen years, numerous techniques and skills have been developed in pedagogy, integrated work within the various social studies, more intelligent use of maps, charts, revisions in study assignments, standardized tests, and better use of biographies, novels, magazines, the radio, movies and newspapers in relation to classroom instruction.

The purpose of this article is to deal with the

newspaper as a technique in motivating greater pupil interest in the study of American history. Customarily, the newspaper is regarded by instructors as an excellent way of providing material for the discussion of current events, along with magazines, news reels, the radio, and similar agencies. However, there is not a general appreciation among teachers of American history that the daily newspaper can be used effectively in bringing to the high school student real and vicarious interests in events of our country's more remote past, events which took place a hundred years or more ago, and which are related, strangely, in an organ, which prides itself on giving to the public the last minute's news as it comes off the world's griddle. There is considerably more history revealed within the pages of a daily newspaper than meets the casual eye of the reader of "Popeye" or the feats of the latest gridiron hero, who will soon pass from public fancy. The difficulty has been that in the main neither teacher nor student has possessed the necessary curiosity or diligence to track down absorbing newspaper material appearing in the daily press, material which has a pertinent bearing on a classroom study of American history.

In an experiment to see what live material in American history might be found, the writer, as a hobby, collected news articles from January 20, 1940 to February 10, 1940. No effort was made to collect articles dealing with the period after 1865. The objective was to see what the daily newspaper contained

that related to early American history. Clippings of articles and photographs were taken from three newspapers, to which the writer regularly subscribed, while teaching at Boonville, Missouri: the *Kansas City Star-Times*, a metropolitan daily with two editions, the Rockford, Illinois, *Morning Star*, a daily in a city of 100,000, and the Boonville, Missouri, *Daily News*, a small daily of six pages in a town of 6,500.

A wide scope of interesting material was accumulated, with articles ranging from a feature on the ancient Mayan cities found in Central America to an account of "Bleeding Kansas." The article on ancient Mayan cities of Chichen Itza presented a clear analysis of the land of America's first wise men, who were trained in agriculture, science, and the crafts. Here lived men who first grew teosinte (corn), who knew something about rubber vulcanization hundreds of years before Goodyear did. An account is given of the brutal exploitation of the Mayans by the gold-crazed Spaniards, who completed wreckage of their empire in 1650. Mayans were early enveloped as slaves in Spain's colonial scheme in the New World.¹

Christopher Columbus, also known as Don Cristobal Colon, is pictured as a Spanish Jew, a "combination of Don Quixote and Moses," a salesman of the first order, and a man whose achievements were offset by his absurdities in John D. Weaver's review of Salvador de Madariaga's *Christopher Columbus*. Madariaga debunks the idea that Columbus' sailors were jailbirds, and points out that no priests made the first trip. Columbus was greedy. He took away from one of his sailors the claim to the Spanish queen's offer of an income to the first man to sight land after the ship arrived in the New World.²

Interesting American social history is reflected in a review of Shields McIlwaine's *The Southern Poor White, from Lubberland to Tobacco Road*. Considerable curiosity has been aroused in the Southern poor white in recent years, with the appearance of literature in both dramatic and novel forms by such writers as Caldwell, in his *Tobacco Road*, Faulkner, and T. S. Stribling. The lazy frontier "lubber" class resident in the Virginia-North Carolina border early aroused the pen of William Byrd in 1728. Between 1800-1860, northern abolitionist writers employed the "cracker," or "clay-eater," as a living representation of social maladjustment in their literary castigations of the Southern planter aristocracy.³

Few students are aware that the United States Supreme Court was unable to convene on the appointed day, February 1, 1790, for its first meeting in New York because of a lack of a quorum. One justice, William Cushing arrived in an old fashioned wig, but, noting the head dress of his colleagues,

became flustered, and rushed away to have his peruke-maker produce something more in the style of the day! A vivid description of the first court's personnel and early proceedings is to be found in a recent newspaper article.⁴

Frequently, newspapers give accounts of antique exhibits sponsored by communities. These reveal much valuable and concrete historical material. At a school hobby show at Davis, Illinois, on January 30, 1940, was a collection of more than 600 Indian arrowheads, tomahawks, pottery, a broad ax which is more than 160 years old, a bass viol made in Italy 164 years ago, a military fife purchased in France before the Revolutionary War and used by a Pennsylvania piper during the war, and a bootjack used by a Civil War captain.⁵

A picture in the *Kansas City Star*, January 20, 1940, showed a photograph of the Ohio Company's land office at Marietta, Ohio, the first settlement in the old Northwest Territory under the Ordinance of 1787. An article in the same newspaper, January 27, 1940 related that in the everglades of Florida still reside 650 descendants of the Florida Seminole Indians, who never signed a formal treaty with the United States, after a war had ended in 1842. Part of the Seminole tribe refused to be moved west, by the treaties in 1832 and 1833, and sought sanctuary deep in the Florida swamps.

Howard County, Missouri, in 1840, was the wealthiest agricultural county in Missouri. Statistics showed Howard had 6,171 horses, 2,576 asses and mules, 5,559 milk cows. Its population included 6,886 slaves of a total population of 15,946. Across the Missouri River from Howard County is Cooper County, in 1850 predominately a commercial and trading center with eight distilleries, eight brewers, three potters, a sugar refinery, four saw mills, and four flour mills.⁶

The peaceful settlement of a boundary dispute in 1939 between Missouri and Iowa, a dispute caused by the meanderings of the Des Moines river, stirred memories of the famous "Honey War," in 1839. In August, 1939, Governor Boggs, of Missouri, issued a proclamation fixing a boundary and ordered county officers and militia to be ready to enforce his proclamation. Gov. Lucas, of Iowa, called out his militia. Before hostilities set in committees from both states met to negotiate.⁷

Recently, Kansas, at one time called Kanzas, "a grassy quadrangle," celebrated its seventy-ninth anniversary as a state. From 1854 until January 29,

⁴ *Kansas City Star*, February 1, 1940.

⁵ The Rockford, Illinois, *Morning Star*, January 31, 1940.

⁶ Boonville, Missouri, *Daily News*, January 27, 1940. An article of February 3, 1940, in the Boonville, Missouri, *Daily News* told of the death of Amanda Seals, who was born a slave in Howard County on February 22, 1845.

⁷ *Kansas City Star*, January 30, 1940.

¹ William LaVarre, in *Kansas City Star*, February 4, 1940.

² John D. Weaver, in *Kansas City Times*, February 9, 1940.

³ *Kansas City Star*, January 27, 1940.

1861, "Bleeding Kansas" represented the final stages of the controversy around slavery and the territories. Later, it was in Kansas, during the Agrarian Crusade, that "Sockless" Jerry Simpson and Mary Elizabeth Lease and others in the sunflower state began to "raise more hell and less corn."⁸

These condensed historical references, all selected from the enumerated newspapers during the experiment, indicate valuable material which the daily press offers in supplementing the usual text and collateral reading sources with lively bits of information.

How may the newspaper be employed by the high school student in an American history class? Specifically, how can the newspaper be used other than for the study of current events by an American history class? The methods of procedure are as numerous as the teaching situations, the abilities, and interests of high school students may demand. A few methods are suggested.

In the first place, the instructor can quite aptly use a newspaper article or a feature story in an effective way to catch pupil interest while introducing a unit of work. The articles on the Mayans and on Chris-

topher Columbus, alluded to earlier in this article, could well be used in introducing the era of exploration and colonization of the New World.

Secondly, committees can be appointed to take charge of a classroom bulletin board. Rotating committees can engage in the work of collecting, clipping, and placing significant newspaper articles, and pictures on the bulletin board.

In the third place, there is the scrapbook idea, which may be used as a regular assignment or for extra credit. Articles, photographs, cartoons, historical illustrations depicting earlier American periods may be clipped, and neatly pasted on mounting paper. They may be interpreted in essay form of a paragraph or two. The interpretation should stress the relationship of the material to definite units of work which have been undertaken by the student.

Finally, newspaper material may be used in connection with the writing of papers, or the delivery of floor talks, book reports, or in the execution of various class projects. The final suggestion is that the daily press will serve as a particularly valuable, concrete and colorful source of materials for a school exhibit in American history.

⁸ Kansas City Star, January 29, 1940.

Motion Picture Department

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WHAT ABOUT SOCIAL STUDIES FILMS IN THE CLASSROOM?

In spite of the great amount of publicity which the newer materials in education have been receiving, many social studies teachers do not use the motion picture in their classroom work. Why is this true? In consulting with social studies teachers, a number of uncertainties are found to exist which discourage film use in the classroom. Let us examine some of these major uncertainties and see what the facts in the situation are. We must remember that objections which were valid five years ago do not necessarily obtain today in the field of motion pictures.

I. Are there many films available for use in the social studies?

The statement is frequently heard that there are comparatively few films available for us in the social studies field. The nature of social studies materials is less factual and therefore more difficult to present than material in the field of the natural and physical sciences. It is, however, no longer true that the social studies teacher has only a few films available in his field. If the teacher will examine three film catalogues (which should be available to him at all times) he

will find that the *Educational Film Catalog*, published by the H. W. Wilson Co., lists approximately 1,000 films in social studies, the *One Thousand and One, Blue Book of Non-Theatrical Films*, published by the Educational Screen, lists approximately 1,200 films, and the catalogue from his State University or department of education film library lists a smaller selected number of the better films. In terms of number of reels of film, then, it can hardly be said that there is a scarcity of social studies materials.

II. Are these films of good quality and desirable for classroom use?

Mere numbers of reels do not, of course, insure good teaching material. Furthermore, a film is not "good" or "poor" in itself. It is "good" or "poor" in terms of the job which the teacher wishes to accomplish. Teaching materials, like other factors in education, can be evaluated only in terms of the purposes to be reached. While high technical standards in photography and sound recording are always desirable, poorer qualities may sometimes be tolerated if the material presented will help us to go in the desired direction. What teachers do want is an adequate description of the film so that they can de-

cide in advance of seeing the film whether it will probably be good for the purpose to be accomplished. Out of 600 films listed in catalogues as "social studies films" a recent study found approximately 400 to "be of use in some part of the social studies program," while approximately 200, in the opinion of the evaluator, "should never enter a social studies classroom."

III. Is reliable information available about social studies films?

More and more accurate information is being accumulated and made available on teaching films. Several evaluation projects are functioning on a national basis. A very valuable contribution has recently been made by William H. Hartley in his study called *Selected Films for American History and Problems*.¹ Mr. Hartley describes the content and gives an evaluation of nearly 400 films which help "illustrate some aspect of American civilization." This publication will be of great use to teachers of American history, problems of democracy, civics, geography, economics, sociology, and fusion courses in the social studies.

IV. Shall I show propaganda films in my classroom?

Emphasis in the social studies has been shifting from trying to avoid all propaganda materials in the classroom to recognizing and analyzing a great variety of propaganda materials for what they are worth. Since propaganda cannot be avoided in life outside the school, it becomes the function of life within the school to equip the student to deal satisfactorily with propaganda pressures. Some motion pictures provide excellent common experiences which can be used as a springboard for scrutinizing and analyzing hidden propaganda. For example, films produced by the National Association of Manufacturers presenting the philosophy of rugged individualism can be compared and contrasted with films produced by the C.I.O. presenting the philosophy of coöperative management in industry. There is probably little difference between being exposed to the editorializing in films and being exposed to the editorializing in daily newspapers. The important thing is to be able to recognize the bias.

V. Why should I change my well-organized routine of teaching which I have been using successfully for years?

There is the well-known story about the teacher who had been in the classroom for twenty years, but had really only one year of experience—the first. The other nineteen were merely duplicates. Any teacher who is smugly satisfied to adhere to an old set of

methods, no matter how successfully they worked at their inception, will soon find himself left behind in the teaching world. Dr. W. W. Charters has this to say about the newer materials in education:

When the history of education is written the first decade of the twentieth century will be remembered as a period of the invention of not one but two instruments of education in rank equal to the invention of the alphabet and the printing press. These are the motion picture and the radio.²

VI. Are films worth all the extra work which is necessary when a showing is to be made?

The teacher who uses a variety of teaching methods will probably always have more work to do than the one who is willing to follow in the well-worn grooves of habitual procedure. The use of films in teaching need not, however, burden the teacher unduly. The problem is largely one of administration and supervision. Each school should have an efficient director of visual instruction who can, with the help of student assistants, reduce the inconvenience for the classroom teacher. The results obtained will far outweigh the preliminary extra work necessary when utilizing films.

If the readers of this department wish more specific information on some film problem in the social studies field, they are invited to write to the Bureau of Educational Research at the Ohio State University. Any information which the Bureau possesses will be willingly given.

COMING FEATURE PICTURES

Social studies teachers will be interested in watching for the following theatrical films which will be released soon:

Northwest Mounted Police—Paramount
Cherokee Strip—Paramount
Flotsam—United Artists
Meet John Doe—Warner Bros.

AT THE NEIGHBORHOODS

The following films dealing with events in history or with significant social issues have been released recently and will now be appearing in the neighborhood theaters:

The Howards of Virginia
The Westerner
Kit Carson
The Ramparts We Watch
Land of Liberty

¹ William H. Hartley, *Selected Films for American History and Problems*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, 1940. 275 pp.

² W. W. Charters, "Influence of Motion Pictures on Children," *National Education Association Year Book* (1934), p. 382.

News and Comment

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DEMOCRACY DEFENDED

The blows struck daily at democracy in the present world crisis are sharpening its adherents' perception of its blessings and makes more and more firm their resolution to save and strengthen it. Dr. Frank Kingdon, in the *Survey Graphic* for September, offered "a challenge to fatalism, defeatism, or inaction" by his analysis of the causes of totalitarianism ("Toward a Dynamic Democracy"). His article inaugurated a series on war-relief and refugee problems, a fitting sequel to the widely read "Calling America" series and one likely to be as influential.

Dr. Kingdon viewed Hitler as an incident and not as destiny, as the spawn of counter-revolutionary forces and not as the apostle of the modern world revolution. Hitler represents but a reactionary attempt to put a brake on efforts to make a world of greater justice and freedom. Like the Inquisition and Napoleon, he may now seem irresistible. But like them, he represents old forms which try to keep alive by preventing the world from stepping across the threshold to a new era.

The trend, in this century has been to modify two of the Western world's strongest institutions: laissez-faire capitalism and national sovereignty. Social legislation, taxation on incomes and inheritances, and the shrinkage of distance by inventions which has drawn all mankind into intimacy and leaves none of us distant from and unaffected by the rest, even if at the antipodes, render nineteenth-century capitalism and nationalism untenable. The globe has shrunk to a planet-city. Yet we continue to think in terms of our old provincial nationalisms, failing to see the world whole. Hitler is compelling us to see that laissez-faire capitalism must be modified in the interests of economic justice, that international law, firmly established, must be obeyed universally, and that war must be forever outlawed.

Dr. Kingdon described the forces and events which ran counter to this trend and finally burst out in the totalitarian counter-revolution. It now forces us from our inaction, smugness, and attitude of appeasement. The foundations of democracy are being re-examined, its values reaffirmed, and faith in it strengthened. A new democratic energy is astir, a new love of freedom which will overcome fatalism and defeatism.

In the October issue, *Survey Graphic* came to grips with the problems set for the series in several articles on the theme, "Individuals and Minorities: 1940." Raymond Graham Swing, in a brief foreword on

"The Challenge of Crisis," pointed to the problem of the degraded and endangered human beings, born of the present crisis, as a social challenge rather than as a plea for mercy. The Nazi would solve the problem of minorities and individualists by getting rid of them. Our civilization, to succeed, must know better "how to give scope to minorities, and how to enrich itself by freeing its own cultural components." Jay Allen offered a program, as part and parcel of our defense measures, to save the fugitive democrats of Europe ("Refugees and American Defense"). Louis Adamic, in "From Bohemia: Ma and Pa Karas," a captivating account of the Americanization of two Czechs, pictured the great contribution of the foreigner to the American community which is his home and his children's.

An analysis in tune with Dr. Kingdon's is that of Clarence A. Dykstra which appeared in the September issue of *The Journal* of the National Education Association. In "Critical Problems Facing Our Nation," the president of the University of Wisconsin threw the spotlight on our economic, social, political, educational, and other problems which must be solved if democracy is to survive.

Professor Thomas H. Briggs has given much thought to the crisis in which democracy finds itself. In the January 24 issue of *School and Society* he so graphically described "The Enemy Within" that nearly a quarter of a million reprints of his article were distributed. In the September 7 issue he continued his defense of democracy by another appeal, called "The Ramparts We Watch." We may not yet be engaged in a military war, he said, but we are at war: an economic war and a war of political and social ideologies. We are forced to respect certain strengths in Germany. She has clear and well-defined objectives. Most of her people have been brought to understand them and to strive devotedly to achieve them. The individual has grown in dignity by being allied to a great and concrete cause. The nation has achieved solidarity. Germany has planned definitely and has definitely organized to achieve her plan. And she has used education to forward her objectives.

We may and do condemn her purposes and her methods. But democracies, with finer ideals, implement them pitifully, in comparison. What would we defend, at the sacrifice of our wealth, comforts, and rights? Professor Briggs listed nearly twenty assets of democracy to defend, including respect for

human personality, the belief that social institutions serve the individual, that government is self-government through freely cooperating individuals, a willingness to abide by majority decision while recognizing minority rights, freedom of ideas and communication, free education, civil liberties, equality, and freedom in religion. A military victory does not guarantee such precious possessions. "Who is planning for the preservation of the rights and even of the obligations that we gladly assume in order that men's minds may be free and their personalities respected as sacred?" Should we spend our wealth on arms, and let democracy shift for itself?

The ramparts of democratic civilization need defending. Dr. Briggs declared that education holds strategic places in the line of defense. Democracy must be ceaselessly taught to all the people and not only to the young. To inculcate understanding and appreciation of the fundamentals of democracy is not easy when conditions ceaselessly change and increase the difficulties of understanding and improving our democracy. "Only if each educator does his part to clarify the meanings of democracy, to stir men to an informed and . . . passionate devotion to its ideals, to stimulate them to a determination to live democracy . . . will democracy survive and our country be worth living for, as well as worth fighting for and dying for."

In line with Dr. Briggs' call is that made by Lewis Mumford in the September number of *Atlantic Monthly*. In "The Passive Barbarian," he made a stirring plea for the defense of freedom and individuality. We should strive for spiritual values in life in place of the multitude of attention-filling nothings which the machine age dangles before our eyes. Similar in purpose but very different in treatment is Roy Helton's leading article in the September issue of *Harper's Magazine* on "The Inner Threat: Our Own Softness," which found femininity to be the menace to our democracy.

As one of its many activities, the Educational Policies Commission has been issuing valuable statements on America's relation to the world crisis. The first, "American Education and the War in Europe," appeared in October, 1939, and was published in *The Journal* of the National Education Association the following month. The second, "For these Americas," was issued last June as a pamphlet. The third, "Education and the Defense of American Democracy," came out during the summer and was reprinted in several places, including the September issues of *The Journal* of the National Education Association and *The Education Digest*.

The Commission condemned totalitarianism in a passionate sentence: "Totalitarianism, with its scorn of the doctrine of human brotherhood, its mockery of the democratic principle of equality among men,

its denial of the dignity of the individual human being, its derision of the ideal of peace among the nations, its glorification of war as man's noblest pursuit, its conversion of the citizen into a pawn of the state, its inculcation of the sentiments of national and racial bigotry, its elevation of dictatorship into a moral and religious principle—totalitarianism, the military state in its contemporary form, holds Europe in thrall and casts its lengthening shadow over the whole earth." Is a new Dark Age descending?

The Commission called upon the schools to help quickly to meet three necessities: timely military preparation, efficient use of all the nation's economic resources to tool the military arm effectively, and the spiritual revival of the people through the stimulus of democratic ideals. The schools can aid the military program by providing the health instruction, technical training, and loyalty to ideals essential to its soldiers. The Commission favored military service for those over twenty-one years of age, as required by our actual needs, and urged the expansion of occupational training in the schools, for national defense.

But above all, the Commission insisted, there must be unity of sentiment among all the people. Otherwise defense cannot be tough and enduring. Democracy requires the disciplined cooperation of individuals who are resourceful, have initiative, and freely accept their responsibilities. Education can do much to make clear the ideals and aims of democracy and to lead men to a profound appreciation of them. The Commission, accordingly, called not only upon the schools to labor for our moral defense, but upon other agencies such as the churches, patriotic societies, and youth organizations, and it offered to help them in acting in this world crisis.

Germane to this scrutiny of democracy is Dr. Roscoe Pulliam's analysis of "Education, Politics and Democracy," in *School and Society* for September 28. The way of democracy is the way of free discussion and compromise among conflicting interests. The expert in charge of the reconciliation of interests is the politician. If he fails in his duty to effect compromises, at least two other expedients may be used by society, other than chaos and collapse. One is that represented by fascism where the great property-holding interests dominate the social order, maintaining their will against all opposing interests and ideas by force of arms; the other is communism where the propertyless interests do the same thing. None of these alternatives to democracy is attractive. The training of competent politician-statesmen is more important therefore than we have been aware of. "One of the first practical tasks for the salvation of democracy is one of remaking education so that it will place responsible, critical citizenship above technical competence or individual success in any other field and will bring the ablest young people

again to understand what the ancient philosophers knew and taught; namely, that politics is the key-stone of the arch upon which an organized society rests and that good politicians are the most important professionals in a democratic society."

Perhaps it was on purpose that, in this same issue and immediately following President Pulliam's article is M. Whitcomb Hess's essay, "Philosopher to Politician: A Personal Appraisal of T. V. Smith." Professor Smith, Illinois state senator and now congressman, philosopher and ardent democrat, has long and eloquently described and defended the important role of the politician-statesman.

ATLAS FOR DEFENSE

Under the heading, "Atlas for the U. S. Citizen," *Fortune* Magazine in September presented a remarkable set of eleven maps for the use of our perplexed citizens. A five-foot globe in the possession of the American Bible Society was photographed from various angles and converted into maps. They show various portions of the earth as seen from the United States and, on three of them, portions of North America as seen from Berlin, Tokyo, and Caracas. Each map is unusual.

The maps were designed to give citizens a geographical foundation for considering problems of foreign policy. As the eye passes from region to region it sees each as it would appear from Washington or Berlin or other center. Brief explanations accompanied the set. The uses of the series are many. Youth who study geography will find here views of countries such as they never saw before.

Companion pieces to this set are several articles bearing on our foreign problems, especially those on "U. S. Defense" which include "The Armed Forces" and "Sea Power and the U. S.," and "Pan-American Conference."

COMMITTEE SYSTEM FOR CLASSROOMS

With the August-September number, *The Congressional Digest* launched a policy of tying in discussions of current political problems with the study of principles and structure of government. This departure, in response to suggestions from teachers, increases the usefulness of the periodical for the social-studies classroom. As a further help, *The Digest* recommends study of current problems by the case or committee system as used by the committees of Congress. How the system operates was carefully explained.

This issue was devoted to the debate topic of the season which has been selected by the National Forensic League: Should the Powers of the Federal Government Be Increased? Following an account of why this question was chosen, a concise analysis was made of "The Powers of the Federal Government,

the States and the People." Before presenting the pros and cons on the question of increase of federal powers, a chronology of their growth from 1791 to 1933 and from 1933 to 1940 was given, listing legislation and other actions which, step by step, enlarged them.

For classes engaged in the study of our federal government this issue of *The Digest* is a most useful supplement. Of equal utility is the October issue which in similar fashion, analyzes and studies the problem of "The Presidential Tenure of Office."

"P. R."

"Has P. R. Improved City Government?" Jerome H. Spingarn answered this question affirmatively in the October issue of *Survey Graphic*, after reviewing both criticisms and the accomplishments of *proportional representation* as revealed by its use for a quarter of a century. His discussion is valuable for pupils studying problems of party, representation, voting, and clean government.

THINKING AND TALKING

"I know it but I can't say it," is an ancient refrain of the classroom. An aid to teachers striving to impress upon youth the value of keeping open the line of communication between men which too often suffers from verbal static because of muddled thinking and fumbling words, is Walter W. Parker's short paper on "Language and Thinking," in the September 21 issue of *School and Society*. He drew upon Dewey, upon such psychologists as Judd and Stout, upon the 1921 report on "The Teaching of English in England," upon that splendid essayist, Samuel McCord Crothers, and upon others to illustrate the mutual dependence of thought and language. His remarks renew inspiration for a perennial task of teachers.

TEACHING CURRENT EVENTS

The difficulties in organizing and handling current events courses seem always to be far greater than those met with in history and related courses. In the September issue of *The Clearing House*, Charles E. Luminati does his fellow teachers a practical service by listing and describing many procedures for dealing with current events ("21 Devices for Teaching Current Events"). Illustrative of the devices he presents are the News Forecast, Current Events Baseball, Class Roll, Cartoon, Card File, Notebook or Scrapbook, and Bulletin Board.

EARLY MAN

Young people will enjoy two illustrated stories of early men in the September issue of *Natural History*: Edwin H. Colbert's "Mammoths and Men," and "An Ancient Deathtrap." In the first, a curator of the

American Museum of Natural History traced the evolution and relations of men and elephants. There are several surprises for the young reader, such as the fact that elephants roamed every continent except South America and Australia and that large quantities of elephant bones are being dug up in Texas, where they have been lying for as much as a half-million years. The illustrations are especially attractive.

Fitting in with these articles is E. R. Harrington's account of "High-School Archeologists," in *The School Review* for September. Mr Harrington, of the Albuquerque (N.M.) High School, related how his archeology club is excavating its own archeological ruin, named Tunque, and is reconstructing a bit of the pre-history of the Southwest.

THE CHANGING EAST

The East is fast becoming a different world from that described in our school books. This fact was impressed upon the reader by several articles in the October number of *Asia*. Edgar Snow, well-known student of China, in "Rip Tide in China," gave evidence of the vast social and cultural revolution now in swing there. No great change seems to be taking place either in government or in the economic condition of the masses. In the social and religious fields, however, revolution is in the making. It is a familiar fact that the first duty of a Chinese is to his family: to marry and have children to maintain the family, to serve his parents, to bury them properly when they die, and to worship them thereafter. But today these tenets, established so long ago by Confucius and others, and the basis of the social and religious life of China, are being deserted by thousands of Chinese.

Youth is declaring that its first duty is to the nation, and not to the family. Young men are dying at the front before founding a family. They are even being insubordinate to their elders by refusing to remain in occupied areas in order to serve their parents, and are going off instead to work for the salvation of the nation. Established religion appears to be on the wane. The masses do not pray. Buddhism has collapsed. The destruction of hundreds of temples has led many to conclude that the gods are impotent. Sacred statues have been tossed out of the temples to make room for hospital beds and barracks quarters. Atheism is growing. The industry of making paper prayers and incense is on the decline. And children callously chalk pictures and slogans on the fallen statues.

The metropolitan character of so many places because of the influx of refugees, soldiers, and others, the sound of many dialects on the same street, inter-marriage, and the coöperation of people hitherto alien to one another are breaking down time-worn prejudices and provincialism. Moreover, loss of

property is reducing the middle-class families to the level of the masses and forcing them to learn the poor man's philosophy of life. Class distinctions are fading before the demands of war and poverty. A prestige never before known attaches to the skilled workman, and a new respect is paid to the man of action. Reconstruction of ruined places is in the modern style, with wide streets, sanitation, modern roads, factories, hospitals, and the like. There is a new self-reliance and self-confidence, with a decline in the old vanity and conceit. Because of Hitler's successes, the Chinese see the Westerners as all too human. The Chinaman has a new pride in his race. Education is on the increase and there is much intellectual activity in an atmosphere of free inquiry. Even graft is now suspect.

In the article on "Cheap and Plentiful Labor," B. Shiva Rao disclosed the social and economic problems created or accentuated by the spread of the industrial revolution in India. Starvation wages, unfit housing, sanitation and dietary problems, trade unions, and many other matters familiar to us, but in an Indian and not a Western framework, were described. Like China, old India is changing.

USEFUL ECONOMIC FACTS

A concise analysis of the "National Income, 1929 to 1939," filled with facts about the nation's income for 1929 and 1932-1939, was given in the *Labor Review* for August. The division of income among the dozen major occupation fields was shown, together with the amounts going to salaries and wages, to other labor income, to dividends and interest, to entrepreneurial withdrawals, and to net rents and royalties.

In the same issue, the leading article summarized the "Legislation Regarding Aliens in the United States," national and state, and gave the terms of the Federal Alien Registration Act of 1940. In this connection, considerable attention was paid to legislation affecting alien employment.

A long article surveyed the "Progress of Public Housing in the United States," both urban and rural. The author, Margaret H. Schoenfeld of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, presented a general view of the activities of the national government in the field of low-cost housing, in terms of current needs. In line with this it is enlightening to study "The Bureau of Labor Statistics' New Index of Cost of Living" which shows the disbursements of wage earners and lower-salaried workers for the necessities and comforts of life, in the larger cities. This study is based upon the Bureau's new cost-of-living index, recommended by the Central Statistical Board for general government use, and is figured upon the average costs of 198 goods and services during the period, 1935-1939.

SOCIAL STUDIES FORUM

Under the chairmanship of Dr. Howard Wilson of Harvard University, a Social Studies Forum has been established this fall by a group of leaders in the field to promote more effective coöperation among social studies teachers in dealing with their common problems. The Forum is designed to serve as a clearing house for other organizations and as a stimulator of activities. It will promote the formation of local discussion groups for the study of problems and procedures of civic education and will work with them by means of correspondence, printed materials, and a field agent. At present the Forum plans five activities: (1) Preparation of lists of outcomes, issues, and problems of civic education. (2) Submission of such lists to local groups for discussion. (3) Establishment of experimental and demonstration centers to work on specific problems of civic education. (4) Spreading of knowledge of such work, as it progresses, among teachers and groups. (5) Diffusion among teachers and groups of information about studies and publications bearing on civic education.

The headquarters of the National Committee of the Social Studies Forum is at 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C.

ANNOUNCEMENTS

Cultural Olympics again features, for this season, programs of music, graphic and plastic arts and crafts, speech and literature, the dance, and several special events. It is the desire of the sponsors to encourage the establishment, this year, of small, self-supporting units outside the area hitherto included. It is the hope that when such units develop in other parts of the country they will form a confederation of Cultural Olympics units which will hold annual or biennial conventions. An invitation is extended to all communities, schools, and other interested groups to write for further information and assistance to Dr. Frederick C. Gruber, Director of Cultural Olympics,

Bennett Hall, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

The National Geographic Society, Washington (D.C.), has resumed publication of its useful *Geographic News Bulletin*. Appearing each school day for thirty weeks, the bulletins present, in word and picture, much pertinent information about the world as it pours into the Society's headquarters from all parts of the globe. Teachers, librarians, and college and normal-school students may secure the bulletins at a cost of twenty-five cents for the year.

The Adult Education Workshop at Claremont Colleges (Cal.), during the past summer was concerned with the problem of unifying the nation in the task of defending and promoting democracy. As a result of the summer's work came a concrete proposal. Those interested should write to Mr. George C. Mann, Chief of Division of Adult and Continuous Education, State Department of Education, Los Angeles (Cal.), for a copy of the Statement on Adult Civic Education for National Defense addressed to Mr. Mann by the members of the Adult Education Workshop of Claremont Colleges.

The Association of American Railroads, Transportation Building, Washington (D.C.), offers free an illustrated booklet called *Quiz* which answers 400 questions about railroads. The booklet gives many facts about them. Copies should be requested from the nearest of these places: Eastern Committee on Public Relations, 143 Liberty Street, New York (N.Y.); Western Railways Committee on Public Relations, 105 W. Adams Street, Chicago (Ill.); and Association of American Railroads, Transportation Building, Washington (D.C.).

The twentieth annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies will be held in Syracuse, New York, November 21-23.

On December 16-18 The American Vocational Association will meet in San Francisco to study the youth problem and national defense, in relation to vocational education.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by RICHARD HEINDEL

University of Pennsylvania

The Course of American Democratic Thought. By Ralph H. Gabriel. New York: Ronald Press Company, 1940. Pp. 452. \$4.00.

American thought has never strayed far from its religious frame of reference. A constant enthusiasm for causes has been its chief characteristic. That reliance on faith which so marks the religious has manifested itself in many guises among Americans high

and low. This general faith in Democracy has included various divergent beliefs regarding the means of implementing it. States rights, laissez-faire, centralization, subsidy, social control have all had their advocates and these advocates have frequently been men and women of emotional, evangelical fervor. This political thinking has had close parallels in the economic, religious and scientific thought of the suc-

ceeding generations. Most of those who have participated in this thinking have striven to envisage an ideal society in which there should be a "balance between liberty and authority, between the self-expression of the free individual and the necessary coercion of the organized group."

Professor Gabriel has related the history of this intellectual evolution in a fascinating manner. He has given not only an analysis of the thought of the years succeeding 1815 but he has included excellent biographies of the writers, clergymen, and social scientists to demonstrate the influence of the shifting American scene upon their thinking. This volume will make an excellent reference work for advanced classes and a number of its biographical portions will be useful to those less well along. In classroom use it can be conveniently illustrated by selections from the anthology of Warfell, Gabriel and Williams, *The American Mind*. It is a pleasure to read so well-written a book.

ROY F. NICHOLS

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

John White Geary: Soldier-Statesman, 1819-1873.

By Harry Marlin Tinkcom. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1940. Pp. vii, 155. \$1.75.

John White Geary's active career spanned two major wars and touched the affairs of three widely separated states, each at a time of more than ordinary stress. As a young man in Pennsylvania he was successively a teacher, a clerk, a railroad superintendent, a militiaman, and a student of engineering, law, and military tactics. On the outbreak of the War with Mexico he promptly volunteered and, as a lieutenant-colonel, served most valorously under Scott. He was wounded in the assault on Chapultepec. Early in 1849, when he had just turned thirty, he came to San Francisco as postmaster. This office he filled so capably that the San Franciscans shortly elected him alcalde and then mayor. In 1852, having accumulated a fortune of half a million dollars, he returned to his native state. Four years later he assumed the thankless job of governing "bleeding Kansas," and despite lack of support from the administration he achieved a measure of pacification. The Civil War saw him once more an immediate volunteer, and he was in the forefront of action in numerous battles, including Chancellorsville, Gettysburg, Wauhatchie, and Lookout Mountain, not to mention Sherman's march. After the war he was twice elected governor of Pennsylvania. In 1873, in his fifty-fourth year, death suddenly overtook him.

Mr. Tinkcom has succeeded well in crowding the narrative of this busy life into a short biography. Particularly excellent are the chapters on Mexico,

exploiting Geary's diary, and on Kansas. Occasional bits of less favorable evidence do not appear; for example, that Geary was an unsuccessful candidate for governor and senator in California. Nor is there any mention of Hubert Howe Bancroft's charges against the amassing of his wealth. On the whole, however, Mr. Tinkcom's praise is discriminate, and he achieves a vivid portrayal of a man who unquestionably possessed energy, bravery, patriotism, and a sense of responsibility in office. This volume launches most auspiciously a new series to be known as "Pennsylvania Lives."

JOHN WALTON CAUGHEY

University of California
Los Angeles, California

Town Government in Maine. By the Maine Historical Records Survey Project, Division of Professional and Service Projects, Work Projects Administration. Portland: Maine Historical Records Survey Project, 1940. Pp. 206.

Most scholars are familiar with the historical records survey of the WPA. The present neatly mimeographed volume is designed for use with the inventory of the town archives of Maine by furnishing information on the nature of the town offices whose archives have been catalogued. Each office is described according to its powers and duties as authorized by law. Copious footnotes, bibliography, index and an appendix of fourteen diagrams of old and new town governments are included.

Clearly this is not a book for the casual reader interested in New England local government. The text is clear but legalistic—which probably is inevitable in describing the skeleton without supplying the flesh. For the infrequent investigator who desires to know the minute details of the job of assessor or other town office as an aid in investigating the local archives of that office, the compilation should be useful—and this service is the aim of the volume. This reviewer maintains a slight skepticism at the claim that only more important offices are included; at least he hopes that none is less vital than the "inspector of vinegar," who had legal existence from 1881 to 1905, or the "burial agent for dead cats and dogs" whose brief period of glory was in the years 1756 and 1757.

ROBERT E. RIEGAL

Dartmouth College
Hanover, New Hampshire

Iowa—Pioneer Foundations, Vol. 1. By George F. Parker. Iowa City: State Historical Society of Iowa, 1940, Pp. 532.

Iowa is not a unique geographical area and its history can not be divorced from that of surrounding states. Mr. Parker, in this volume of the Iowa Cen-

ennial History, sees Iowa as the culmination of a long frontier process, and therefore describes its civilization during the pioneer period of 1830-70 as part and parcel of a long and widespread movement to the West. He is impressed neither by chronology nor by political factors, but describes the life of the period by topics. A promised second volume will complete the picture.

The general concept of the book is intelligent and attractive, but the actual contents are in many ways disappointing—a comment made with reluctance, since both the author and the sponsor of the book are now dead and can not reply. For the general reader the volume is bulky, detailed and discursive, with a somewhat solid style. Even the old resident of Iowa will need perseverance. For the historian, a forty-year period seems hard to describe as static, while there is frequent difficulty in deciding whether or not the author is speaking of Iowa. Many errors, including "discoveries" that are well known, may be blamed on the recollections of Mr. Parker and his friends, since there is little pretense of library research. Such research seems particularly desirable in view of Mr. Parker's "sympathy not remote from partisanship" and his strongly held prejudices. One wishes that the author had confined himself to reminiscences and allowed a better trained man to do the job that he set himself.

ROBERT E. RIEGAL

Dartmouth College
Hanover, New Hampshire

California. By John Walton Caughey. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1940. Pp. 680. \$5.00 and \$3.75 (School edition).

California is one of the few states for which a state history has real meaning. Separated from the remainder of the nation by mountains, and including within its borders a continental range of geographic and climatic features, it has a history as unique as its situation. Spanish friars, American soldiers of fortune, gold miners, vigilantes, literary celebrities and movie queens all help to provide the rich and varied panorama that is California.

Professor Caughey has presented both the facts and the color of California life in admirable profusion and variety. He writes both well and interestingly, with a delightful touch of humor, but is careful not to take liberties with his facts. His wide research is visible not only in his admirable critical bibliography but also in the considerable amount of material that could have been obtained no other way. While the book is designed at least partially as a text it is entirely readable for non-students, and provides possibly the best one volume history of California in existence—even though the field is keenly competitive. The volume is one of a series of state histories

being published by Prentice-Hall, and the publishers have done an excellent job in typography, paper, maps, pictures and index.

The entire account is a remarkably well balanced piece of work. Slightly less than half is devoted to the Spanish period, including early American interests. In the remainder, emphasis is given the recent period, with a good summary of present conditions and trends. Social and economic material is given considerable space and woven into the fabric so that newspapers, oil wells, "Okies" and other phenomena of California life become an integral part of the story rather than small isolated fragments tacked on the end of a political narrative. Professor Caughey is something of a California booster, which is only natural and probably desirable in a resident, but he does not let his enthusiasm distort his writing. Altogether he has produced a book which is a difficult mark at which other writers of state history may aim.

ROBERT E. RIEGAL

Dartmouth College
Hanover, New Hampshire

The Strategy of Terror; Europe's Inner Front. By Edmond Taylor. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940. Pp. 278. \$2.50.

Edmond Taylor, chief of the Paris bureau of the *Chicago Tribune*, is a new kind of war correspondent. He is a reporter on the psychological front, describing the strategy, the tactics, and the content of moral war, which held the center of the stage during the first nine months of the present European conflict. While many correspondents reported it as a "phony war," because it did not conform to World War stereotypes, Taylor, in this illuminating book, reports and analyzes the activity on Europe's new battle front—the battle front of the mind. Principally concerned with the French sector, he has chosen the Munich crisis as the point of departure, for it was then that the structure and techniques of Nazi psychological warfare were fully revealed for the first time. The corrosive and demoralizing effect of Munich upon the French nation, the measures taken by the Daladier government to repair the damage and suppress defeatist propaganda, the "psychological reconditioning" of France, and the transition from appeasement to encirclement are presented and examined as part of the war of nerves. Outstanding in their vivid reality are the chapters on the August crisis and the abandonment of a formal state of peace for a ceremonial state of war. Fatalism rather than enthusiasm marked the attitude of most groups during the crisis—the people of Europe went to war "not so much as sheep go to the slaughterhouse, but as men commit suicide in a dream." The real meaning of the current phrase "War of Nerves" emerges

through the generous extracts from his own and his wife's diaries.

Throughout, the author's analysis of the reactions of political and social groups to the prospect and reality of war reveals a deep appreciation of the intellectual and social history of France. The volume closes on the eve of the Western Blitzkrieg. Writing in the first days of May, he observes the tuning up of the German propaganda machine, the preparatory barrage of word symbols, and predicts that the decisive moment of the war, its "psychological Marne," is very near. He could not foresee the French débâcle, but his remarkable book deepens our understanding of that tragic chapter of modern history.

ORON JAMES HALE

University of Virginia
University, Virginia

Nationalism. A Report by a Study Group of Members of the Royal Institute of International Affairs. New York: Oxford University Press, 1939. Pp. xx, 360. \$3.75.

This will prove to be a convenient introduction to the history and present problems of nationalism. With a few exceptions, writers of the nineteenth century assumed that independent sovereign States were the desirable divisions of the world; this has now changed, and the present study was written because "contemporary developments of nationalism appear to threaten the very future of civilization."

Quite properly, the study group looked upon nationalism as a special case of the more general and permanent problem of group integration. The historical sections are not always adequate, as the writers admit, and this will bring some disappointment to those who look at the chapter on American and Dominion Nationalism. The volume treats, in addition to historical, rather refreshing, surveys, nationalism and the economic order, sources of resistance to nationalist policy, and the problem of the multi-national state. The volume was completed before the outbreak of war in 1939, but much of it will be of permanent value for issues of the conflict. One may quote by way of illustration: "Western national feeling, having become effective at a much earlier date than its German counterpart, easily came to terms with the cosmopolitan traditions of the Enlightenment. . . ." Germany did not, and the nation became for Germany an "absolute good."

National Socialism and the Roman Catholic Church.

By Nathaniel Micklem. London: Oxford University Press, 1939. Pp. xvi, 243. \$3.00.

This is, as the subtitle suggests, an account of the conflict between Nazi Germany and the Catholic Church during 1933-1938. Whether one calls it a compilation or a composition, its complete documen-

tation accumulates to a terrifying warning which should be widely read. The author who finished this indictment before the outbreak of war is Principal of Mansfield College, Oxford. In addition to historical surveys for each year, there are chapters on Hitler's outlook and policy, Herr Rosenberg and his myth, and the concept of "Positive Christianity." The volume could not have been concluded otherwise: "With the passing of 1938 the Christian Church in Germany enters into a dark cloud, but it is unafraid."

Alexis de Tocqueville; a Biographical Essay in Political Science. By J. P. Mayer. New York: The Viking Press, 1940. Pp. xvii, 233. Illustrated. \$3.00.

The one hundredth anniversary of Alexis de Tocqueville's famous *Democracy in America* and current political tensions have helped to renew interest in this French political analyst whom some authorities rank just after Aristotle and Machiavelli. One is never completely satisfied with the fame of his hero, and Dr. Mayer is something of a hero-worshiper in this instance. But as a historian of European political thought and the editor of a new edition of de Tocqueville's writings, the author writes a convincing, charming, and very valuable account of his hero. De Tocqueville from these pages demands attention from any one who pretends to be interested in political questions. It was this French aristocrat who foretold the mass age and some of the consequences of the growing democracy; he suspected the emergence of the Despot out of Democracy. This volume can be used by the teacher for his own edification and for inspiring students to clear thinking on vital issues.

The Atlantic Migration, 1607-1860; A History of the Continuing Settlement of the United States. By M. L. Hansen. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1940. Pp. xvii, 391. Illustrated. \$3.50.

This is an exciting and scholarly volume. Although the subject of immigration to the United States and of immigrant groups here has been heavily plowed, the late Professor Hansen (after utilizing a vast amount of material), makes a definite contribution by emphasizing European conditions and forces which prompted migration. In addition, several chapters contain excellent accounts of European economic and social history. Migration is a story which touches history at many points: agrarian developments which changed the European countryside, hygienic improvement which help Europe's growth in population, a new era in Atlantic transportation, and the like. There were varied channels of information and misconceptions; in remote Ger-

man villages people learned about America by reading President Jackson's annual messages to Congress.

We know something about immigrants in this country, and now, more about the forces which caused the greatest migration known to man. An even more complicated and subtle part of the story still remains to be told—the influence and career in Europe of some ten millions of migrants who left America to go back to old homes, taking experience, new modes of life, often money.

France. A History of National Economics, 1789-1939. By Shepard Bancroft Clough. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1939. Pp. ix, 408. \$3.50.

Not a few people have found it difficult to understand French economic history. Professor Clough, in writing successfully for the layman, the scholar and the statesman, has given very detailed material for the study of national economics. He urges at the same time the proposition that France's economic policies and present problems will help to clarify issues faced by nearly all countries of western Europe. This historical volume, which includes two very useful concluding chapters on post-war economics and a recapitulation, plus very complete bibliographical help, will satisfy the average curiosity and fill an important place in any library.

TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

A History of Western Civilization: Two volumes. By Arthur P. Watts. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1939, 1940. Pp. xxxvii, 786; xvii, 1055. Maps. \$3.75, \$3.75.

The outstanding feature of these two volumes is their remarkable clarity, both in organization and style. Economic, scientific, and cultural developments are given special emphasis, with political history as an essential background. The wealth of detail serves to illustrate, rather than inundate, the major trends. The author has the happy faculty of making an old story seem new and fascinating, and of characterizing a period or a movement in a most revealing way. Many of his sentences speak volumes.

Any number of statements in this work are open to question. For example: Did the Sumerians invent the wheel? Were the intellectual effects of the crusades "practically negligible"? Was Henry III "by far the most important of the Holy Roman Emperors"? Were feudal institutions "more highly perfected" in England than elsewhere? Was Edward I a "very unpopular king" of England? Was Thackeray "probably the greatest novelist"? Was the Versailles Treaty "by far the most severe that history records," with the exception of Brest-Litovsk?

There are several unnecessary errors. Wrong dates are given for the Statute of Laborers (I, 424), the

chartering of the University of Paris by Philip Augustus (I, 511), the publication of Henry VIII's pamphlet, *In Defense of the Seven Sacraments* (II, 60), and the five members' case (II, 132). Alexander the Great was not "the only great general who never lost a battle" (I, 42); the same is said of Marlborough. The kings of England did not create Parliament in 1265 (I, 504). Malory's *Morte d'Arthur* was written in the fifteenth century, not the sixteenth (I, 694). The beginning of the temporal power of the papacy is traced to Gregory the Great, and later to a grant from Pepin in the eighth century (I, 193, 299). In at least two instances Edward III of England is confused with Edward I (I, 432, 518).

Special mention should be made of the excellent treatment of Greek and Roman civilization in volume I, and the lengthy summary of economic, social, and cultural changes since 1600 in volume II. Naturally there are weaknesses of omission. Why, for instance, should Charlemagne be discussed on a few scattered pages only, and Erasmus dismissed with a passing reference? The account of the Thirty Years' War seems inadequate. Tilly and Wallenstein are not even mentioned, and Gustavus Adolphus is given only two sentences.

On the whole, this is one of the most satisfactory of the many surveys of western civilization which have appeared in recent years. It is admirably adapted for classroom use.

NORMAN D. PALMER

Colby College
Waterville, Maine

Modern Economics. By James F. Corbitt and Minna Colvin. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940. Pp. x, 591. \$1.80.

Economics. By Fairchild, F. R., Furniss, E. S. and Buck, N. S. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940. Pp. xxi, 828. \$3.00.

Contemporary Economic Systems. By Earl R. Sykes. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1940. Pp. xiv, 690. \$3.00.

The first of the books under review was written primarily for high school students. Its purpose is to present in clear and simple language a realistic picture of our economic life today. In order to accomplish this purpose, the authors have included much material of a statistical and illustrative nature, but they have endeavored especially to interpret for students the "conflict which has arisen between a system of *laissez-faire* and the necessity of social control." Since this conflict affects the welfare of the nation, it has been made, as it were, the principal theme of the volume.

The book contains fifteen units, or chapters, and aside from the introduction and conclusion, is di-

vided into three parts. Part I is a treatise of the profit system. Part II is a study of social control, and Part III is devoted to the people in the capacity of income-receivers and consumers. The authors believe that the policies of dictatorship are a dark threat to the security of peoples. There are, however, certain lessons which can be learned from the totalitarian governments. Efficient planning on a national scale must be substituted for unrestricted private enterprise. Our natural resources must be used in the public behalf in order to give every American a high standard of living. Our complex society needs regulation, but democracy and the worth of the individual man must be preserved.

Much care has been given to the preparation of an extensive list of questions and references at the end of each chapter. The authors have succeeded admirably in incorporating the spirit and tendencies in modern economics and the book is well adapted to the needs of high school students.

In their text, *Economics*, Professors Fairchild, Furniss and Buck have sought to introduce fundamental facts and principles to college students. We are told, however, that the text is a book for beginners. It is an abridgement of the *Elementary Economics*, a two-volume edition by the authors which has been widely used in colleges and universities. The purpose is the same as that of the larger work, namely, to confine the treatment to "topics upon which the science of economics may fairly be said to have reached definite conclusions." It is not intended to take the student into frontier regions of the subject.

Since the intention of the authors is to treat economics as a science, they are concerned with economic society as it is and not as it ought to be. Ethical questions and problems of welfare are omitted from consideration. In the main the book follows the lines of neo-classical economics, although due recognition is given to recent developments in imperfect competition. The effort to combine theoretical discussion with contemporary problems have been extremely successful. Exercises have been inserted at the end of various chapters and a classified list of books has been appended at the end. The book well deserves the wide recognition it has received since the first edition was published in 1937.

Contemporary Economic Systems, by Professor Sykes, is the first volume of the newly projected American Business and Economic Series under the editorship of Dean H. V. Olsen of Dartmouth College. It is designed to supplement the usual textbook in courses in the Principles and Problems of Economics, but the book should appeal strongly to the layman as well as to students in economics and business. It is the outgrowth of lectures and classroom discussions by the author over a period of fifteen years.

In recognition of the profound changes which have occurred in the economic organization of various nations, Professor Sykes asserts that the study of economics is far more complicated than it was a quarter of a century ago. Then "it was largely limited to the functioning of competition within the framework of a liberal state." Today we are directly concerned with the totalitarian systems as well as with our own more closely regulated economy. The purpose then is to bring a better understanding of these various economic systems.

In spite of the rapid growth of dictatorships, the author expresses his firm belief and faith in political and economic democracy. It is true that in times of stress democracy may appear slow and ineffective. But the great central fact to be kept in mind is that democracy alone has for its end the development and betterment of the individual. There must of course be both political and economic democracy. This requires pre-eminently a division of powers under which there will not exist a single type of industrial organization, but a system in which there are competitive groups, cooperatives, privately owned and operated industries with governmental regulation and others that are owned and operated by the government.

Our present economic system is criticized on the grounds of inequality in distribution, waste, misdirected use of the productive factors and the fact that under our price mechanism the standard of living is not as high as it might theoretically be. Above all we have vast economic insecurity. Yet extensive gains have been made under this system and there is a large measure of individual freedom. The book is scholarly, well written and deserves to be widely read by students and the general public. It is a notable contribution to the literature in this dynamic field of study.

TIPTON R. SNAVELY

University of Virginia
Charlottesville, Virginia

A Short History of Western Civilization. By Charles Edward Smith and Lynn M. Case. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1940. Pp. 815. \$4.00.

This interesting book, its authors state, is the outgrowth of their experience in teaching a survey course in the Louisiana State University, and is designed as "a usable and sufficiently comprehensive manual" for students in it whose need of a "strong factual treatment of political and constitutional history" they properly emphasize. As such it must be judged here, though without much fuller information about the class work and reading it is designed to accompany, the reviewer may often be guilty of unfairness. Well chosen pictures and a good and up-to-date bibliography enhance the value of the text. The maps given are useful though occasionally almost

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too detailed to illustrate any one period or aspect of one, as for example the map of Great Britain in chapter fifty-two.

In any volume covering European civilization from the days of the Sumerians to our own, the question of proportion is highly important and in this would certainly have to be corrected in the class room or study. The best chapters are those on the ancient world, six being devoted to Grecian and six to Roman history. The illustrations in these are good and the narrative ably compressed. It seems all the more surprising to discover out of a total of fifty-two chapters, no less than five on the Renaissance world, four on the sixteenth century religious movements and dissensions and four on the age of the French Revolution and Napoleon, this arrangement necessitating some drastic curtailments in the discussion of Baltic and Mediterranean affairs in the modern period. Yet, the brilliantly succinct account of nineteenth and twentieth century culture makes it obvious that the disproportion is deliberate and not inadvertent.

Some ineptitudes of style and errors in fact are inevitable in a work of this scope and can very readily be remedied in future editions. Colloquialisms like "revamp" and "graft" or repetitions like the many variants of realism, realistic and realist in chapter forty-nine, or in the same place, phrases like "re-

sponsive reaction," may jar the reader. A few statements might be modified or corrected. There is no evidence that Chaucer "derived lessons of plot and construction" from the *Decameron* (p. 415). The "terms" which the Pope conceded after Francis' victory at Marignano (p. 361 and not indexed) deserve specific description as the famous concordat of Bologna which though mentioned later (p. 423) is neither connected with the battle nor indexed with the later concordats of 1801, 1929, though it does appear under the name of the city. Louis XIV did not say "L'etat c'est moi" (p. 482) in English or French. The paragraphs on the reign of Charles I (pp. 476 ff) should be revised as it is misleading to speak of the "Elliot" resolutions, or to spell the word that way, a "forcible" dismissal of that parliament in 1629 or a "decisive" battle at Marsden without fuller explanation and definitely wrong to say that under Richard Cromwell, whose brief rule lasted through a scant nine months, England went through "two years of vacillation and dissension" (p. 479). Since Kepler and Galileo both preceded Newton his work can not be said to have "culminated in" in theirs (p. 520).

CAROLYN ROBBINS

Bryn Mawr College
Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania.

In a Democracy. By E. L. Angell and G. B. Wilcox. Austin, Texas: The Steck Company, 1940. Pp. 399. Illustrated. \$1.32.

In fourteen concise chapters this book treats such topics as the American way, population, communication, natural resources, education, Latin America, safety, spending, crime, social security, taxation and government. Some attention is paid to the historical background of national development. Although briefly presented, each topic is written clearly and lucidly from the viewpoint of the young pupil. The chief aim of the authors is expressed as follows: "If, after you read and discuss this book, you have a better appreciation of and a deeper love for the democratic way of government and a sincere patriotism for this country of ours, then this book will have achieved its purpose."

The illustrations have been well selected and excellently produced. The printing and general make-up of the book deserve praise and commendation.

Planning Your Future. By George Myers, Gladys Little and Sarah Robinson. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1940. Revised Edition. Pp. 549. \$1.64.

The purpose of this book is to acquaint young people with occupational information and help them understand and appreciate how the work of the world is done. The book is divided into four main parts:

- I. The World of Occupations
- II. Occupations in Your Community
- III. Facts Every Worker Should Know
- IV. Finding Your Place

The authors have chosen to follow the United States Census classification of occupations. Each major field is discussed, and the advantages, disadvantages, and qualifications of the various occupations pointed out. Comprehensive bibliographies for further reading are offered for each major field and questions and projects are included at the end of each chapter. Numerous graphs and illustrations are also provided.

MARY BOWLES

Cheltenham High School
Elkins Park, Pennsylvania

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

Productivity, Wages, and National Income. Pamphlet No. 23, 1940, of The Brookings Institution. Published by the Brookings Institution, Washington (D.C.), and distributed free by The Maurice and Laura Falk Foundation, Farmers Bank Building, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. Pp. 21.

A digest of a larger study of the subject by Spurgeon Bell, to determine the increase in man-

hour productivity in the United States, 1923-1937, in the cotton textiles, tobacco, paper and pulp, automobile, and iron and steel industries, in mining, railroads, and in electric light and power, and to find out the distribution of the gains among labor, capital, and the general public.

In Defense of Democracy. By Frank Murphy. *International Conciliation*, No. 360, May 1940. Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 405 W. 117 Street, New York. Pp. 20. 5 cents.

Supreme Court Justice Murphy's notable discussion of the nature and meaning of civil liberty in our democracy. Includes the text of the American Bill of Rights.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

The New American Government and its Work. By James T. Young. Fourth edition. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940. Pp. xviii, 1118. \$4.00.

Extensive rewriting of a well-known text, with emphasis on its teaching qualities.

Problems of American Democracy. By Horace Kidger. New York: Ginn and Company, 1940. Pp. xi, 540. Illustrated. \$1.68.

For senior high schools. After an introduction on clear thinking, each chapter opens with a statement of its problems followed by factual information. Includes such topics as socialized medicine and technological trends. Well-selected teaching aids.

Government of the American People. By J. S. Young, J. W. Manning, and J. I. Arnold. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1940. Pp. xiv, 830. \$3.75.

A text which integrates agents and processes and functions. Proper stress on applied economics and sociology, with historical background.

Town Government in Maine. Prepared by the Maine Historical Records Survey Project, WPA, Portland, 1940. Pp. ii, 206.

The first volume on town government published by the Survey in any state. Comprehensive.

Iowa: Pioneer Foundations. By George F. Parker. Vol. I. Iowa City: The State Historical Society of Iowa, 1940. Pp. 532.

A comprehensive work, covering the years 1830 to 1870.

California. By John W. Caughey. New York: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1940. Pp. xiv, 680. Illustrated. \$5.00 (School price, \$3.75).

A colorful, complete history, with state history related to a larger scene.

North America. By J. Russell Smith and M. O. Philip. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1940. Pp. xiii, 1008. Illustrated. \$4.75.

Discusses people, resources, development and prospects of the continent. More gloomy than the first edition (1925). Attempts to answer the question how we may safeguard and develop our resources.

Land Economics. By Richard T. Ely and G. S. Wehrwein. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940. Pp. xiii, 512. Illustrated. \$4.00.

Land economics is here defined as the science which deals with the utilization of the earth's surface, or space, as conditioned by property and other institutions. The first five chapters discuss this while the remainder of the book treats their application to the various types of land and natural resources. Excellent volume backed by twenty years of teaching.

Modern Economics. By J. F. Corbett and M. Colvin. Revised edition. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940. Pp. x, 589. Illustrated. \$1.80.

A discussion text for high school economics. Contains basic work on fundamental principles. Fair treatment of controversial issues.

Economics. By F. R. Fairchild, E. S. Furniss and N. S. Buck. Revised Edition. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940. Pp. xxxi, 828. \$3.00.

As a rule the text, designed for beginners, has been confined to topics upon which the economists may have reached fairly definite conclusions. Combines theoretical analysis with historical narrative. Revisions include price, banking, nationalism, and labor.

Contemporary Economic Systems. By Earl R. Sykes. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1940. Pp. xiv, 690. \$3.00.

Historical background and analysis. Useful clarification. Author suggests there is no one "best" system applicable to all countries and at all times.

Fundamentals of Business Training. By Raymond C. Goodfellow. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940. Pp. x, 515. Illustrated. \$1.80.

Primarily for vocational training, but useful correlation with other topics such as economic principles and consumer education. Adequate study aids.

How to Work With People. By Sumner Harwood. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Cambridge Analytical Services, 1940. Pp. 199. \$2.00.

Discusses "scientific methods" of securing cooperation. Will aid in personnel work and guidance.

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An Introduction to Sociology. By E. R. Groves and H. E. Moore. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1940. Pp. viii, 737. \$3.25.

Emphasis upon the person as a participant in group endeavor, also regionalism. Section on social problems has been eliminated. Controversial issues are well handled.

Social Pathology. By S. A. Queen and J. R. Gruener. Revised Edition, New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1940. Pp. x, 662. \$3.50.

Text which deals with one major issue: how do various handicaps affect the social life of individual persons? Case studies included. Part One, the field of social problems, is primarily for the teacher.

Elements of Rural Sociology. By Newell LeRoy Sims. Third Edition New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1940. Pp. xiii, 690. Charts. \$3.75.

A revision reflecting great changes in the rural community. Emphasis, as before, is on the development of community life.

Sociology. By W. L. Willigan and J. J. O'Connor. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1940. Pp. xi, 387. Illustrated. \$2.00.

A text designed to impart a Catholic conception of

the individual's role in societal processes. Full list of Catholic authorities.

The Past Lives Again. By Edna McGuire. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940. Pp. viii, 439. Illustrated. \$1.40.

Well-illustrated elementary text divided into five large units. Ample teaching equipment.

America Then and Now. By Edna McGuire. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940. Pp. v, 435. Illustrated. \$1.40.

Elementary, authoritative account well illustrated. Units organized in chronological order. Emphasis on social history. Variety of teaching aids.

The Curriculum of the Common School. By Henry C. Morrison. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1940. Pp. xiii, 680. \$4.00.

From Primary school to the end of junior college. Basic contribution to educational theory. Draws sharp distinction between education and instruction. Social science is treated vigorously. Teaching units are outlined for each course justified.

The Strategy of Terror. By Edmond Taylor. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940. Pp. 278. \$2.50.

Newspaper correspondent explores Europe's psychological warfare from spring of 1938. An addition to the concept of "total war." Instructive collateral reading for social studies classes.

Map Studies in European History and International Relations. By W. L. Godshall. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940. Map collection. \$1.00.

Useful aid with sensible annotations and directions.

Manoel. By Claire N. Atwater. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1940. Pp. 67. Illustrated. \$2.00.

Modern Portugal is the scene of this story of a boy and his dog.

Faith for Living. By Lewis Mumford. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1940. Pp. ix, 333. \$2.00.

A provocative book prompted by insidious moral disintegrations that gave an opening to the forces of barbarism. The author contends that our philosophy has been a fair weather one. In a sense, it is a continuation of Mumford's *Men Must Act* and part of a planned opus on modern civilization.

Publicity and Diplomacy: with Special Reference to England and Germany. By Oran James Hale. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1940. Pp. xi, 486. \$4.00.

Covers the period 1890-1914. Coexisting for the first time, manhood suffrage, popular literacy, and the modern press affected the relations of governments. Comprehensive and not without valuable lessons for the more recent period.

New World Challenge to Imperialism. By M. E. Tracy. New York: Coward-McCann, Inc., 1940. Pp. xi, 393. Illustrated.

An introductory analysis of world politics in terms of the widening breach between Old World imperialism and democracy in North and South America. By a former editor of *Current History*.

John White Geary. By Harry M. Tinkcom. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1940. Pp. vi, 155. \$1.75.

A very suitable beginning for the new series "Pennsylvania Lives" which will exploit the less familiar Pennsylvanian. Succeeding volumes will discuss such figures as Thomas Mifflin, Philander C. Knox, Charles Brockden Brown, Conrad Beissel, and John Bartram.

A Man Named Grant. By Helen Todd. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940. Pp. 598. Illustrated. \$3.50.

A biography which uses many devices of the novel in its presentation of the General's personality.

War Propaganda and the United States. By Harold Lavine and James Wechsler. New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1940. Pp. x, 363. Illustrated. \$2.75.

Probably the first book to analyse this war's propaganda and designed in part to enable Americans to discriminate.

Yankees and Yorkers. By Dixon Ryan Fox. New York: New York University Press, 1940. Pp. x, 237.

Discusses the long-term "warfare" between New Englanders and New Yorkers. Chapters also on cultural characteristics and Yankee culture in New York.

The Chinese Army: Its Organization and Military Efficiency. By Major Evans F. Carlson. New York: Institute of Pacific Relations, 1940. Pp. ix, 139. \$1.00.

Another excellent volume in the I.P.R. Inquiry Series. Answers the questions about the miracle of

Chinese resistance. Major Carlson writes with first-hand knowledge.

Hitler and I. By Otto Strassner. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940. Pp. 244. \$2.50.

An intimate study of Hitler by a former associate who became the Fuehrer's "Public Enemy Number One" as leader of the Freedom Front.

The Bolsheviks and the World War: The Origin of the Third International. By Olga H. Gankin and H. H. Fisher. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1940. Pp. xviii, 856. \$6.00.

Another commendable Hoover War Library Publication. Documents of this volume, supplemented by editorial notes, do not go beyond 1918.

France: 1815 to the Present. By John B. Wolf. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1940. Pp. xi, 565. \$3.00.

A useful, compact, balanced history of French civilization and politics. Problems of foreign, colonial, and military affairs have not been extensively treated.

Europe in the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries (1789-1939). By A. J. Grant and Harold Temperley. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1940. Pp. xxiii, 716. Maps. \$4.00.

A revision of a standard text which often displays insight and always a wealth of historical knowledge.

The French Renaissance. By Catherine E. Boyd. Boston: Museum of Fine Arts, 1940. Portfolio of 42 plates, explanatory captions and 52 pp. of text. \$5.20.

This is Illustrative Set No. 3 of the Museum Extension Publications for which the Museum and collaborators again deserve high praise. The atmosphere of a period notable for the interplay of cultural and social forces is conveyed to all types of readers. Not many schools can subscribe for the entire set, but selections might be made. Both illustrations and text are excellent.

Economic Problems of Today. By W. Arthur Lewis. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1940. Pp. xii, 179. \$1.25.

A brief, simple introduction to fundamental matters by a British author.

Government and Economic Life: Development and Current Issues of American Public Policy. By Leverett S. Lyon, Victor Abramson and Asso-

ciates, Vol. II. Washington, D.C.: The Brookings Institution, 1940. Pp. xi, 521-1301. \$3.50.

An interpretation of American public policy in relation to our economic life. The final chapters discuss governmentally organized production.

The British Unemployment Assistance Board. By John D. Millett. New York: McGraw-Hill Company, 1940. Pp. 300. \$3.00.

A case study in administrative autonomy.

Labor Problems. By G. S. Watkins and P. A. Dodd. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1940. Pp. xiii, 1128. \$3.75.

Textbook on contemporary issues with exhaustive analysis of social problems as background.

Parental Income and College Opportunities. By Helen B. Goetsch. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Contributions to Education, No. 795. Pp. ix, 157. \$1.85.

Intellectually gifted students who continue their schooling are compared with those who do not to discover the psychological, economic, and social selection which takes place between high school and college.

Critical Reading Comprehension in the Intermediate Grades. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Contributions to Education, No. 811. Pp. vi, 135. \$1.85.

A study of the reference reading ability of 400 students.

School Administration. By Arthur B. Moehlman. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940. Pp. xvii, 929. Charts. \$3.60.

A comprehensive study of development, principles, and future in the United States. The result of two decades of experience by a University of Michigan professor. The central thesis is that instruction is the supreme purpose of the schools and that all activities should be considered as contributory to this.

Tory Hole. By Louise Hall Tharp. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1940. Pp. 202. Illustrated. \$2.00.

Setting of this story for younger readers is Connecticut in 1780. *Lords and Gentlemen* was the author's first volume in a series of historical books covering interesting periods of American history.

Blue Horizons. By Mary Wolfe Thompson. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1940. Pp. x, 221. \$2.00.

Building a career in New York is the basic theme of this girls' story. Teachers might ponder on this gem from the jacket: "Janet, like every girl who works for her living, is driven by necessity."

Without Valour. By Laura Long. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1940. Pp. viii, 244. Illustrated. \$2.00.

The life of a small town during the Civil War is recreated in this story of a boy's first experience with conflicting loyalties.

Edra of the Islands. By Marjorie Medary. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1940. Pp. 280. Illustrated. \$2.00.

A girl's story centered on the coasts of Nova Scotia, with authentic background.

River Empire. By H. C. Fernald and E. M. Slocombe. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1940. Pp. vi, 218. Illustrated. \$2.00.

Adventure on the great waterways in the year 1806.

Yukon Holiday. By Felice Fieldhouse. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1940. Pp. 230. Illustrated. \$2.00.

Understanding story of the North country.

Guns of the Frontier. By William MacLeod Raine. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940. Pp. 282. Illustrated. \$3.00.

Authentic and exciting narratives showing how law came (sometimes belatedly) to the West.

Chuck Martinez. By Priscilla Holton. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1940. Pp. 312. Illustrated. \$2.00.

A boy's adventurous rediscovery of his native country—Mexico.

Black Fire: A Story of Henri Christophe. By Covelle Newcomb. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1940. Pp. xii, 274. Illustrated. \$2.50.

A well-told story of the slave boy who became king of Haiti.

Luck of Scotland. By Ivy Bolton. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1940. Pp. x, 229. Illustrated. \$2.00.

Story for young readers of the Bruce and Scotland's defense of her borders.

Akka: Dwarf of Syracuse. By Agnes C. Vaughan. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1940. Pp. viii, 216. Illustrated. \$2.00.

Life about 300 B.C.

The American Impact on Great Britain, 1898-1914: a Study of the United States in World History. By Richard H. Heindel. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1940. Pp. ix, 439. \$4.00.

A broad socio-cultural study covering such topics as the channels of communication, diplomacy, industry, education, sport and the like. Some portions deal with more recent events. Suitable for collateral reading on a neglected aspect of American history.

In a Democracy. By E. L. Angell and G. B. Wilcox. Austin, Texas: The Steck Company, 1940. Pp. 399. Illustrated. \$1.32.

An elementary text in civics presenting a number of the larger problems of American life as well as the major factors that have aided in the development of the United States.

STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, CIRCULATION, ETC., REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF CONGRESS OF MARCH 3, 1933, OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES, published monthly, October to May inclusive, at Philadelphia, Pa., and Menasha, Wis., for October 1, 1940.

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